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The Nation

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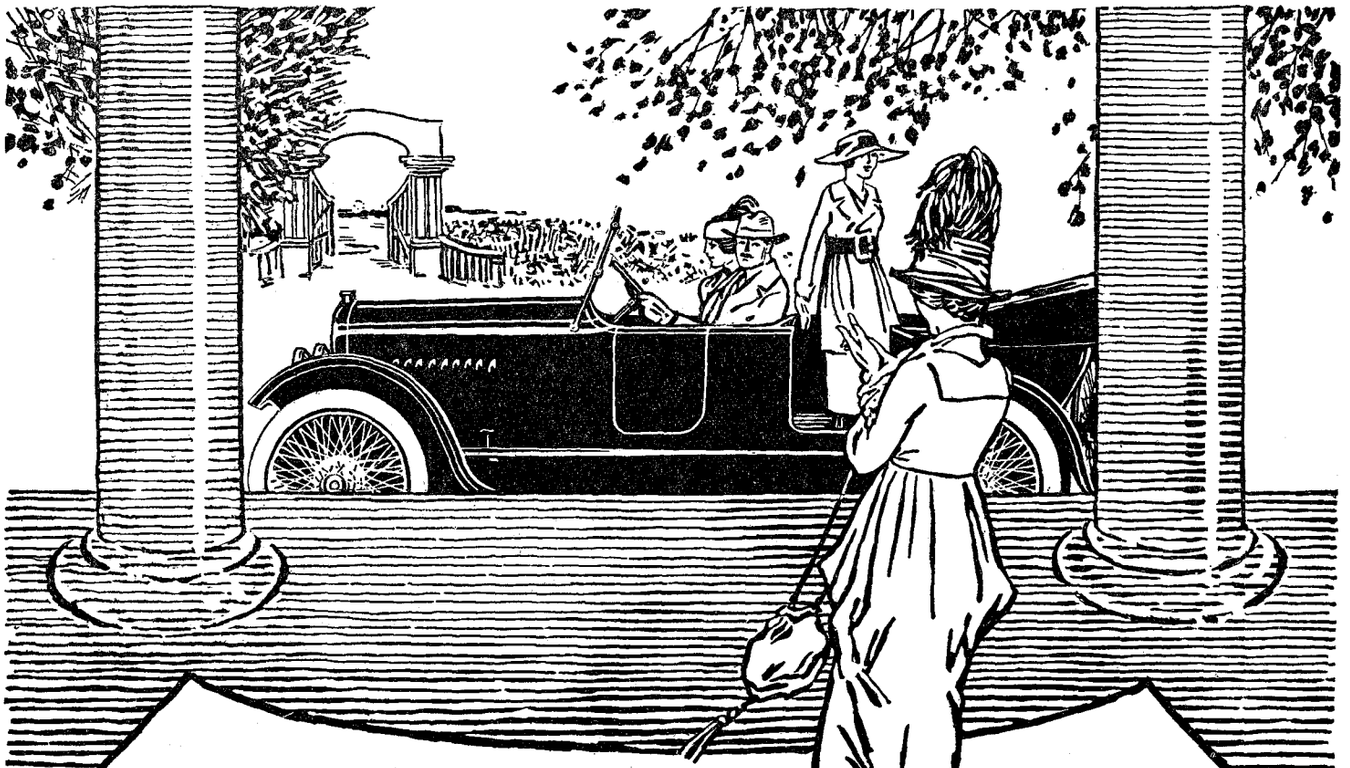

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The Nation

Vol. CVII NEW YORK, SATURDAY JULY 20, 1918 No. 2768

The Week

THE news from the Marne, the scene of the fifth German offensive in 1918, will thrill all America. Our troops, in this, their first major engagement, have covered themselves with glory by breaking up the German offensive on the first day by their vigorous defence and their prompt and successful counter-offensives. While it is too early, at this writing, to reach a clear understanding of the German effort, its magnitude, its aims, and the extent of the first-day gains, it is perfectly plain that the Americans have blocked the way to Paris and that the German bombardment of towns like Meaux, twenty-five miles behind the lines, was no more effective in shaking the morale of the Americans than the direct attack. Thanks to unfavorable weather, the Germans could not use their gas so effectively as in the earlier offensive, and what seem to be new Allied tactics—immediate counter-attacking as soon as the offensive begins—were apparently very successful in stopping the drive. The Italians, it will be remembered, counter-attacked with great brilliancy on the second day of the Austrian offensive on the Piave, but the Americans did not wait even a day, and at this writing the only question is how far the Germans have penetrated the French lines. Rheims itself still appears safe, and so stiff was the French defence east of that city that the Germans do not seem to have been able even to enter the first-line trenches.

IF this offensive turns out to have been one of first magnitude and to have been stopped on the second day, the importance of the victory achieved by the Allies and the Americans cannot be overestimated. It may easily change a most critical situation into one in which the French people can begin to breathe again. Not that we believe it will end the German drives. As we have repeatedly pointed out, the German militarists must go on all summer, as long as they have men to sacrifice and hopes of accomplishing something, because the liberal elements and the bulk of their people will demand, we believe, an accounting in the fall if nothing definite has been achieved. They are willing to pay the bill this summer, but there is grave question as to whether they will be willing to continue to pay it if there is nothing more vital to show than has been achieved so far. The Germans must take Paris under the fire of their naval guns before the fall or confess failure and sit down next summer to a purely defensive campaign in an effort to keep their people contented and the Kaiser upon his throne. To-day it is sufficient for America that her green troops have fought with complete success like the finest French veterans, without breaking under the fearful German bombardment, and routing the enemy as soon as they attacked, while their generals seem to have demonstrated complete ability to handle the most dangerous situation extremely well. They were at the crucial point on the enemy's road to Paris, and they have served notice upon him that he must choose some other road to the French capital. We may even have reached a turning point in the war.

GENERAL PERSHING has again earned the thanks of the country, this time for promptly denouncing a braggart and lying sergeant who has been telling false tales of German atrocities. One of the fifty men from the trenches brought over to aid in the Liberty Loan and Red Cross drives, this particular soldier thought it well to draw on his imagination to the extent of asserting that he had seen an American soldier with his ears cut off, that the Germans were giving loaded bombs to children to play with, besides feeding tuberculosis germs to American prisoners. Being the kind of a soldier who does not have to malign his enemies in order to win, General Pershing promptly replied to a query of the War Department that nothing of the kind was recorded in his experience and requested the return to France of that sergeant in a sentence which bodes ill for him on his arrival there. We hope he will be disciplined, for there are enough real things to worry American parents whose sons are at the front without their being tortured by such tales as this, told by a man in uniform. Whenever there are authenticated instances of atrocities, the country may rest assured that General Pershing and Mr. Baker will be quick to let us know officially. The keeping of this fact in mind will save many a credulous person from being deceived by much gossip and rumor.

THE precise conditions attending the operations of the Czecho-Slovaks in Siberia are still uncertain. According to one of their spokesmen, Colonel Hurban, the Czecho-Slovaks, acting under the orders of the Czecho-Slovak Council, have no other aim than to reach the battle front in France, where they hope to fight the Germans and Austrians. Conflict with the Bolsheviki or interference in Russian affairs forms no part of their purpose. A memorandum to this effect has been handed by Colonel Hurban to the Japanese Foreign Minister and the diplomatic representatives of the Allies at Tokio. On the other hand, a new provisional Government is reported to have been set up at Vladivostok, with the declared object, among others, of summoning a Constituent Assembly, overthrowing the Bolsheviki, and restoring order. The vice-president and general manager of the Chinese Eastern Railway, General Horvath, has proclaimd himself Premier and announced that the new Government will support the Allies. The relation of this new state to the Czecho-Slovaks, a considerable body of whom are at Vladivostok, is not clear. Reports continue of a combined German and Finnish movement aimed at the Murmansk Railway. There is reason to hope, however, that the Allies, who already have a small force at Kola, which they are said to be strengthening, may be able to prevent the railway, the loss of which would be a serious blow to Russia at this time, from falling into German hands. Meantime, President Wilson's long-talked-of plans for "helping Russia" wait, at least so far as public announcement is concerned.

RUSSIANS of every shade of political opinion are making it increasingly clear that "a close coöperation with the economic forces of Russia, in the common interest of

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the whole world," is the most hopeful line of action for us in that country. The coöperative societies are the best agencies through which to work. The coöperative movement, fathered by the venerable and honored Nicholas Tchaikovsky, has been steadily developing during the war years, despite political disorganization and strife. From 5,700 societies in 1905, the number had risen to 31,000 in 1914, only to jump to 46,000 after three years of war. It is estimated that their present membership embraces between fifteen and twenty million households, comprising nearly a hundred million persons. This gigantic organization, non-political in its activities, touches both peasant and city worker in the very fundamentals of their life. The great Moscow Narodny Bank stands at the centre of the movement, whose steady and remarkable progress Americans can easily trace through the columns of the *Russian Coöperator*, an excellent periodical published in London. If we can for a moment withdraw our attention from Bolshevist vagaries and German intrigues, we shall discern one of the world's most remarkable economic and social organizations steadily at work for the salvation of Russia, and shall discover an agency through which to "help Russia" more effectively than through an army of a million men.

IN his speech in the Reichstag on July 11 the Imperial Chancellor, Count von Hertling, declared that "the present possession of Belgium only means that we have a pawn for future negotiations. We have no intention to keep Belgium in any form whatever." This statement, it should be noted, did not appear in the text of the speech as published in the American newspapers on July 12, but was withheld for some reason until the next day. While the announcement that Germany did not propose to retain Belgium "in any form whatever" was gratifying to all who have hoped for some sign of peace, the frank avowal of an intention to use the country as a pawn with which to do political trading was in the highest degree unsatisfactory. The Chancellor's words assumed that Belgium is validly in German possession. It is clear that the situation in Europe will have to change a great deal for the worse before either the United States or the Allies will admit any such contention. On July 16, however, a further instalment of the speech was made public. Not only must Germany be guaranteed, the Chancellor was now reported to have said, that Belgium shall not be used "for ground on which to deploy military forces," but also "from the economic standpoint we must have guarantees against being isolated. It must be made to the interest of Belgium to secure close economic relations with Germany." According to the *North German Gazette*, this portion of the speech, after being held back for four days, was finally given to the press because members of the Reichstag demanded it.

COUNT VON HERTLING'S words have aroused widespread and hostile comment in Germany. No less important a person than Theodor Wolff, editor-in-chief of the *Berliner Tageblatt*, condemns without qualification the suggestion that Belgium be used for political trading purposes. "If Count von Hertling," he writes, "considers Belgium as part of the peace question, he must remember that for nobody outside Germany is Belgium even a question for argument. . . . The Belgian question for most people in the world is merely a plain question of right." This is plain speaking, especially for Germany, but we cannot but think that it represents the thought and aspiration of all those in the Central Powers who are weary of a war which ought never to have been begun, and whose minds and consciences revolt at the policy of untruthfulness, cunning, and international brutality of which the German Chancellor, if his words are to be taken at only their face value, appears to have made himself the mouthpiece. We sincerely hope that what was said in the Reichstag on July 11 need not be taken as a complete closing of the door, on Germany's part, to either formal or informal peace discussion. It is quite possible that the Chancellor, trying to balance himself between the liberals and the militarists, felt compelled to use the language he did about Belgium as a sort of protective camouflage. If so, he would not be the first statesman to find himself in that disagreeable position. For the moment, however, von Hertling has taken a false step. We can only hope that a prompt and decisive failure of the new German offensive on the Marne may lead him to clarify his utterance.

THE friendship of the United States for France, to which all parts of the country gave generous expression on July 14, is in some respects unique. Resting as it does in origin upon a worthy historical foundation of gratitude for help in time of need, it has nevertheless lacked from the beginning the stimulus which comes from similarity of language, history, or political and social institutions. Its bursting into bloom to-day is in part a tribute to the magnificent stand which France has made against an enemy which would gladly destroy it, and in part a recognition of the fact that France, in the great fight which it is making for its independence and territorial integrity, is at one with America in its passion for liberty. Those who have been privileged to know France from within during the past four years, and the larger number who have only heard or read of what they could not in person share, have come to recognize, too, the high spirit, the chivalry, the patience, and the faith of the French people. The material help which America is able to extend to France in this its time of mortal testing is small indeed in comparison with what the loss of France would mean to the world. It is one of the few happy results of the war that to-day, because of common perils and sufferings, the two peoples now think chiefly, not of barriers, but of bonds of union.

THE question of the disestablishment of the Church of England, which has been slumbering for some years, has come forward again under unexpected circumstances. A number of the clerical members of the High Church party have taken alarm at the elevation of Dr. Henson, the late Dean of Durham, to the bishopric of Hereford. Dr. Henson has been a prominent leader of the "modernist" sentiment in the church, and his selection for preferment has been followed by an appeal, signed by some sixteen influential High Churchmen, to the Archbishop of Canterbury and Convocation, for action which will make clear that the Church still stands for the faith once delivered to the saints. The Rev. Paul Bull has gone further and has declared that the time has come for those who would hold fast to the faith in its ancient purity to ask for disestablishment. He has accordingly written to Mr. Arthur Henderson, the secretary of the British Labor party, that since the programme of that party accords better with his (Father Bull's) views than any other, he is prepared to support it, provided the party will agree to insert a plank demanding disestablish-

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ment. He further suggests, in the *Church Times*, the writing of similar letters by, say, a thousand of the clergy. What the British Labor party will think of the proposal remains to be seen. It is entirely possible that, with a general election approaching, it may be willing to add to its elaborate programme in return for an assurance of clerical support.

THE Republicans, with the fall elections in sight, are still prospecting for issues. The party is for the war, of course, and to that extent is bound to support Mr. Wilson as President and Commander-in-Chief, but it is not for Mr. Wilson in general, and would be glad to attack the Administration if only there were some obvious point at which an attack would be likely to be successful. Mr. Taft has already told the Republicans that they must not only stand solidly behind the President in the prosecution of the war, but that they must also work out a definite and constructive programme if they expect to win votes. Mr. R. Fulton Cutting, chairman of the Board of Trustees of the New York Bureau of Municipal Research, has just given similar advice. In a letter to the Republican Congressional Committee, made public on July 10, Mr. Cutting declares that the Committee's appeal for campaign contributions, to which, by the way, he responded with a check, and the printed statement which accompanied the communication, are "indefinite, gaseous, and illusory." The allusion to "the necessity of adopting Republican principles for the industrial reconstruction that is to take place after the war," which he understands to mean a return to the Payne-Aldrich tariff, is "sufficiently ambiguous to permit of any amount of dodging." What we want, he declares, is "a positive, concrete programme of constructive statesmanship," and he points out that a "real issue" is at hand in Mr. Taft's proposal in 1912 of an executive budget. We agree with Mr. Cutting that if the Republicans will come out for a genuine budget system, they will have an issue which will put Mr. Wilson and the Democrats to the test.

DURING the past year we have become too familiar with rampant lawlessness masquerading under the guise of patriotism. A striking letter to the *Evening Post* calls attention to the remarkable situation existing in Minnesota, where hostility to the Socialists, the I. W. W., and the Non-Partisan League, working under war conditions, appears to have brought about a veritable reign of terror. In November, 1916, after an inflammatory campaign, Minneapolis elected a Socialist Mayor. Fearing lack of police protection in case of strikes, large property owners and others appealed to the State Legislature, which established a Public Safety Commission of three men, and Governor Burnquist, ex-Governor John Lind, and John H. McGee, a Minneapolis lawyer, became its members. With the outbreak of the war, the Commission practically took charge of the State, issuing such orders as to cause Mr. Lind to resign, in a letter that Governor Burnquist refused to make public. Now comes word that C. O. Wright, Mayor of Luverne, the county seat of Rock County, has ordered members of the Non-Partisan League in that county to register at the Luverne Loyalty Club and renounce membership in the League, or be deported. Out of 407, 376 have registered and 31 refused, and the Luverne Village Marshal announces that the 31 and their families will be thrown out of the county if they continue recalcitrant. One man has already been deported and his property has been seized. As the Public Safety Commission has taken no steps to stop these outrages, it is planned to appeal to the President for Federal troops to protect law-abiding but politically dissentient citizens against their "loyalist" neighbors.

SUSPICIONS long rife in the New York newspaper world were confirmed on Monday of last week when the Attorney-General of the State caused the arrest of Dr. Edward A. Rumely, head of the *Evening Mail*, on the charge of perjury in swearing that there was no enemy money in that newspaper. While Dr. Rumely still insists that he was guilty of no wrongdoing and has offered to appear before a Senate committee of inquiry and to waive all immunity which might result, the fact that German propaganda money was put into the *Mail* seems beyond cavil. It was done in the familiar underhand way by transferring the funds from one bank to another and using the name of a prominent German-American to conceal the transaction. Naturally, it has aroused renewed anger and disgust, this further proof that the Germans were thus trying to corrupt public opinion here in their own interests after the manner of Bismarck. As usual, the effort was as stupid as it was base, for the facts could not altogether be concealed, and the influence of the *Mail* waned from the moment Dr. Rumely took hold. The gravest thing about it is the blow to the integrity of our daily press itself, which already stands quite low enough in public estimation. As for the Germans, so far as accomplishing anything, they might as well have thrown their money into the sea. But the effort will cost them dear, for it constitutes another score against them which will make them suspect in America as long as present memories last.

ONLY the golfing enthusiast, we imagine, has discerned any impropriety in the fact that of all important sports golf has not been represented at our training camps. For even the average follower of the ancient game might well pause to determine the precise degree of its significance as related to the calling of arms. Of dash, of élan, of undue physical exertion there is none; to be sure, the cool calculation of angles, drifts, windage, and the like might conceivably be of some value to the artillery student, but in saying this we confess to the benevolent design of going out of our way to formulate as engaging a brief as possible for golf. It is perhaps for this reason that clubs and associations have been laggard in presenting the claims of the sport to our soldiers, a process to which proponents of other games and pastimes early devoted themselves. Now it is planned to remedy this condition. Dr. Walter S. Harban, vice-president of the United States Golf Association, puts forth the suggestion of laying out three, five, or nine-hole courses on the parade grounds of training camps, and it is said that the military authorities have promised hearty coöperation. Throughout the country golfers of the *Landsturm* will be asked to contribute clubs, balls, and other golfing paraphernalia to the end that by fall soldiers who have played golf may have opportunity of carrying on with their favorite sport, while recruits will no doubt be enlisted in growing numbers. There is the theory of a double purpose in the establishment of camp golf; while the soldiers will have one more source of recreation, the game itself will develop thousands of new adherents, a fair proportion of whom after the war will return with their enthusiasm for golf sufficiently keen to give a very general stimulus to the sport.

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Mr. Asquith and a League of Nations

ADVOCATES of a league of nations have from time to time commented upon the fact that the proposal, while by no means without influential support in Great Britain, had nevertheless failed, for some reason, to arouse quite the same warmth of interest, or to commend itself so widely, in England as in this country. A great step in advance was taken when Mr. Lloyd George, in his famous speech of January 5 on war aims and peace terms, included an international organization for the limitation of armaments and a lessening of the likelihood of war in the list of results which must be insured. The recent guarded adherence of Mr. Balfour, and the varied reception which greeted the pamphlet of Viscount Grey, showed that the leaven was working. What was needed, however, was a clear expression of approval from some one entitled to speak for the great body of English Liberals. That word has now come from no less a person than the recognized leader of the Liberal party, Mr. Asquith.

Mr. Asquith's endorsement of a league of nations, in his speech before the National Liberal Club on July 10, was unequivocal. "There can be no clean peace," he declared, "which does not clear away the cause of war." "We should realize," he continued, "and act as though we realize, that a league of nations is neither a vague political abstraction nor an empty rhetorical formula, but a concrete and definite idea, and that its embodiment in practical shape is by far the most urgent constructive problem of international statesmanship." Mr. Asquith claimed no credit for Great Britain for enforcing this conviction or pointing out the "long step in advance on the road of human progress" that "can and must be taken." The honor lay beyond the sea. "When the goal is reached," said the Liberal leader, "as it will be—and that perhaps sooner than many expect—due honor will be paid to one of the first and greatest of its pioneers, President Wilson." Mr. Asquith's generous words, we may be sure, were no empty form.

On this important question, France, too, is falling into line. A number of French public men have lately allowed themselves to be quoted by the *Petit Parisien* as favoring the organization of a league of nations on the lines laid down by President Wilson. Our enemies already have such a league, M. Doumergue is reported to have said, because *Mitteleuropa* is an accomplished fact. Lord Robert Cecil has pointed out that twenty-four nations are now informally allied against Germany for economic purposes. Neither a *Mitteleuropa* nor an economic league is, of course, a true league of nations, but they may at least serve to point the way.

The political implications of Mr. Asquith's speech are not easily exaggerated. Englishmen, as we know, have the habit of taking seriously the well-considered utterances of public men. They fully understand that the speaker, if placed in power in the House of Commons, can actually do, and will be expected to do, the things which he has advocated. When, accordingly, Mr. Asquith, the head of the Liberal party, declares that the formation of a league of nations "is by far the most urgent constructive problem of international statesmanship," he not only commits his party to support of the same position, but elevates the demand to first place in the Liberal party programme. Mr. Lloyd George could not do that, because he has no party. The Labor party stands for a league of nations, but the plank, however, important, is only one of many in its comprehensive platform. Mr. Asquith, on the other hand, by his frank and unequivocal statement, has made the attainment of a league of nations, as "a concrete and definite idea," the chief thing with which the Liberals, so long as they accept his leadership, must now concern themselves.

That Mr. Asquith, in his address, was speaking for his party as well as for himself, is further evident from the resolutions adopted by a representative conference of the Liberal party, held at the House of Commons on the very day, as it happened, of Mr. Asquith's speech. The conference, called to consider the political situation, adopted three resolutions intended to serve as a party platform. The first committed the party to the support of a league of nations. Whether or not Mr. Asquith himself inspired the resolution is of little consequence. What matters is that, when he spoke, he did so with the knowledge that the party was behind him. The other two planks in the conference platform are hardly less important. One, as summarized in a press dispatch, calls for "control by Parliament of the foreign policy and the ratification of treaties." The other demands "full restoration of free speech, free press, and rights of civil trial." On these foundations, joined to that of a league of nations, the Liberal party has now taken its stand.

There is no mistaking the significance of this action. The Liberal party, long content to support a Coalition Government in the prosecution of the war, is preparing for a change. It has adopted a programme whose watchwords are union, publicity, and freedom. Convinced that neither nationalism nor nationality, working on the lines of the old political order, can guarantee the maintenance of peace even if peace be won, it comes out unreservedly for internationalism as the immediate and highest obligation of statesmanship. The revelations of secret treaties and secret diplomacy have done their work; henceforth the nation in Parliament, and not Ministers in secret conference, must determine foreign policy and sanction the conclusion of international agreements. Upon the whole misguided business of withholding or garbling legitimate news, suppressing freedom of speech, muzzling or coercing the press, and denying civil rights to those whose only offence was inability to agree with the Government, the Liberal party turns its back. It asks for the restoration of the constitutional rights of Englishmen, that England may be free.

Both within and without Great Britain the new Liberal declaration will carry weight. For one thing, it gives the Liberal party, in the next general election, a ground upon which it can, if it chooses, oppose the Labor party in constituencies normally Liberal, or endorse Labor candidates in constituencies that are doubtful. The new pronouncement can hardly fail, too, to force the hands of the Unionists. With British Liberals committed to the idea of a league of nations, it is now in order to carry discussion to the practical stage, and set about the construction of a practical programme. We cannot but hope, also, that the outspoken demand for open diplomacy and the restoration of constitutional rights will have its effect in this country. It is one of the most suggestive anomalies of the war that the fresh air of freedom should be stirring in Britain at the moment when, in the United States, liberty of thought and speech are increasingly denied.

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Universal Military Service

WE are glad to print elsewhere Rear-Admiral Goodrich's letter favoring universal military training, not only because of the standing of the writer—long a valued contributor to the *Nation*. We cannot, however, abate one jot from the historic opposition of this journal to the introduction of universal compulsory military training whatever its form or whatever the system advocated, whether it be French, Swiss, or German. To that wicked Prussian device for militarizing a nation we attribute not only the utter moral downfall of the Germany of to-day; it has been the means by which Prussia has subordinated the Bavarians and other South Germans to her will, and is responsible for the whole modern phenomenon of "nations in arms."

So profoundly do we distrust the spirit which universal military service engenders in every country in which it is tried that we should oppose it even if we believed it accomplished everything that Admiral Goodrich claims for it. But we deny that as a peace-time institution—and we are discussing it here solely on that basis—it will necessarily make good American citizens or that it will banish class hatred and racial cleavages. That has not been the experience abroad, either in Russia or in Austria-Hungary. Were it such a wonderful melting-pot, it must long since have wiped out the racial rivalries which are to-day a chief hope for the collapse of the Dual Monarchy. In Germany it has not only not democratized the nation; it has been the most anti-democratic force at work there. The rich and educated serve one year, while the poor serve two. The various regiments represent every kind of social snobbishness, differentiation of rank, and aristocratic privilege—and there have been somewhat similar conditions in France, though there conscription in peace time bears its friendliest aspect. But even in France we have had the horrifying revelations of the Dreyfus case, the narrow escape from a military *coup d'état* engineered by Boulanger, and the changing by Presidential decree of railroad workers about to strike into reserve soldiers.

Now we are quite aware that in debating this subject any one who suggests that America might be militarized by universal service is met with incredulous smiles, if not by charges of pro-Germanism. Our correspondent shares the prevailing easy American optimism. But no less a person than Mr. Walter L. Fisher, a member of Mr. Taft's Cabinet and a believer in strong military preparedness, has pointed out that the past of America offers no analogy or security on this point. Because we were without militarism when we had a regular army of only 25,000 men and 2,200 officers, there is no logical reason to assume, he points out, that we shall not be militarized when we have 50,000 or 75,000 regular officers devoting all their time to teaching the art of war and preparing for its exercise. As for the discipline such involuntary and compulsory military service is alleged to bring about, we do not care for discipline acquired by the subordination of men's minds to military drill-masters. The best mental and moral discipline is acquired in other ways, else has our entire philosophy of life and education been wrong.

We must also confess ourselves heretics in the matter of the physical benefits to be acquired, and this despite the gains in health and vigor of our soldiers at the cantonments. But have France and Italy profited enormously by their universal training; are the Germans rated as physically supermen because of their drill-masters? This war has shown very clearly that the countries without universal service are not physically behind those that have it. As to Admiral Goodrich's challenge to name anything else as a substitute, we would remind him first that the leading American teachers of physical culture are opposed to military drill, and next that the British army turned to Swedish exercises as soon as this war began as the best and quickest means of preparing Kitchener's Mob for the trenches, abandoning their own old drills. We are more than willing to see the Swedish system made compulsory for boys and girls in all our schools, and we believe that all the non-military benefits which Admiral Goodrich desires and we desire can be obtained in this way without objectionable military features.

We must, however, say frankly that we regard the agitation of this matter now as detrimental to the conduct of the war and disadvantageous to the President and Secretary Baker. Mr. Wilson has nobly declared disarmament to be one of the fourteen peace terms for which we are striving; if we come out for universal service now as a permanent policy, it will cast doubt abroad upon his and our sincerity. Lloyd George has declared the abolition of universal service to be "one of our most important war aims," and the British Minister of Education, Mr. Fisher, has definitely pledged the Government not to introduce military drill in any British public school, no matter what the outcome of the war. In this vital matter we stand squarely with the powerful National League of Teachers' Associations, which on Independence Day sent a telegram of congratulation to Secretary Baker for his stand against universal service, expressing its warm approval of his "refusing to be stampeded into the endorsement and adoption of a permanent system of universal military training"—"that monstrous evil," they call it. They rejoice that, thanks to Mr. Baker, "we are in no danger of losing the chief end of the war before the war is more than well begun," and they assure him that his course "is well understood and is silently approved by the great American people."

Home Rule for India

WE congratulate the British Government on Mr. Montagu's monumental report on India. While the scanty notices thus far received by cable offer little basis for judgment as to just how far that statesman has thought it possible to go in meeting the legitimate demands of Britain's Asiatic subjects for home rule, the well-known liberal views and clear intelligence of Mr. Montagu are themselves a guarantee that the full report will be found to embody the largest measure of self-government that a wise statesmanship can devise.

The dispatches thus far at hand state that the report constitutes a great step in that direction, recommending the completion of the structure of local self-government, with a "considerable measure of responsibility" in the hands of directly elected provincial legislatures, the creation of a viceregal legislative body of two chambers, and the establishment of a privy council and a council of princes, with the erection of machinery for conducting periodic inquiries to consider whether other subjects may be transferred to popular control. Just what subjects are now recommended for such transfer the cables do not indicate.

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The cordial democratic attitude of the British people gives good reason to hope that Parliament will not delay in giving effect to the home-rule principle. That principle, clearly enunciated by Mr. Montagu before he visited India, has now been accepted by most divergent British schools of thought. The *Times*, for example, on May 18 declared: "The fundamental principles . . . have been fortunately placed beyond controversy by the very clear and definite terms of the Pronouncement which heralded the Mission." The London *Nation* a week later said that Mr. Montagu "went out with the definite purpose of studying the steps which may be taken at once towards the concession of responsible government. His appointment followed promptly on a declaration in which he committed himself to a large measure of autonomy."

The bright hopes that were roused in India by Mr. Montagu's appointment and his declaration of principles have unfortunately been somewhat dimmed by later events. Mrs. Besant's arrest and internment created a painful impression, as did a whole course of sharp political repression. A deputation of distinguished Indians started for England, amid the plaudits of their countrymen, to present the cause of home rule before the English people. Though passports were granted with the approval of the Viceroy, and though Mr. Montagu was understood not to be unfavorable to the mission, yet the passports were cancelled and the delegation was turned back from Colombo. Such incidents fostered the idea of strong forces working against Indian freedom.

Indeed, it is apparent that those same influences of Tory reaction that have bedevilled the Irish situation are at work against the Indians. We do not refer simply to such organizations as Lord Sydenham's Indo-British Association, whose interests and animus are well known and are correspondingly discounted. But there are some evidences of an anti-Indian campaign in the press, not only of Great Britain, but of our own country as well. We know little about India and unfortunately care less; and if we can only be made to believe that that great state is a mere congeries of unrelated, illiterate, quarrelsome, degenerate peoples, we shall the more easily be led to support those who would for their own ends refuse the right of self-government.

The voice of the British people is being raised in behalf of India. The Labor party, at its Nottingham conference, unanimously passed a resolution in favor of Indian home rule. There is no lack of good will, but in the tremendous pressure of the war there is real danger that there may be undue delay. The processes of democracy are being hastened in these days, and more than ever delays are dangerous. Ulster and the Tories who used Ulster created the Sinn Fein and made the Irish problem all but insoluble within the British Empire. If the same groups would not create the same conditions among the three hundred millions of India, let them take the lesson of Ireland to heart. Let them listen to the voice of the best and wisest of England's sons, who have spoken in no uncertain terms for the redress of India's grievances and the concession of those rights of self-rule to which Mr. Montagu is pledged. For India, as her leaders have said more than once recently, no longer appeals to Great Britain's generosity, but asks her to save the empire. India in chains would drag Britain down to perdition; India free and prosperous and content will be a bulwark against all that the future may threaten. "For the throne is established by righteousness."

Endowing Newspapers

THE publication last week of Mr. James Gordon Bennett's will dispelled many rumors that he had left his newspapers to his employees, to his wife, or to a syndicate. The document generously established a home for aged, incapacitated, and impecunious New York city journalists, the work to be carried on by a board of directors nominated by the executors. To this home, which is to be a memorial to his father, are left the three newspapers owned by Mr. Bennett, to be held and managed by the directors of the home "upon the same principles and traditions and with the same policy and in the same manner, so far as practicable, as the same shall be conducted at the time of my death." The executors and directors are also enjoined "not to part with any of the stock of the New York Herald Company" or "of the Paris Herald Company," unless it shall be "absolutely necessary"—a difficult injunction to obey if the request that they be carried on as at present is also lived up to. For as at present edited they are believed not to be making any money, the *Herald* losing heavily, while the *Telegram* makes about as much. Again, if their present status and manner are to be rigidly preserved, it is hard to see how Mr. Bennett's further instructions to put surplus earnings into the improvement of the properties can be carried out. But that there is an opportunity for vast betterments in them is plain. If the executors and directors have real vision, they can produce the greatest newspapers in the world, provided they subordinate the question of dividends at first, select editors who will hew always to the line of enlightened principles, and then give those editors a free hand.

We are thus in a fair way—if the residuary estate is as large as is expected—to see the experiment of an endowed newspaper tried in this country and conducted, presumably with ample funds, by a self-perpetuating board of trustees. It will be an experiment of vast import to the profession and to the country, for if it succeeds it will solve many doubts as to the future of the press. But can such an experiment be a success when the trustees of privately endowed colleges have so frequently failed to live up to their opportunities to safeguard free speech and academic liberalism? Can the growing chasm between the American press and the plain people be bridged in this way? One generation of trustees may be ruled by the desire to earn dividends for the benefit of the home for journalists; another may, because of the lack of any financial incentive, fail to breathe real life and vigor into the editorial management. And how can there be any assurance that there will be that forward-looking policy which alone marks a really great newspaper, or at least one that powerfully moulds the public opinion of its time? This question is the crux of the whole problem, and it is an interesting coincidence that the publication of the terms of the Bennett bequest last week was almost simultaneous with the giving of an interview by Adolph S. Ochs upon his plan for the continuance after his death of his remarkably successful New York *Times*.

Mr. Ochs has an original suggestion to make. He hopes to install *in perpetuo* an editorial cabinet whose members will rotate as chief, "this office to be held either for a specified term or as long as the policies adopted are approved by the majority of the cabinet," and he would have no editorial appear that has not "the acceptance at least of two

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members of the staff who have not written the article." Mr. Ochs is moved to this by his belief that so great a newspaper as his should "not be entrusted to one person," no matter how capable, as every individual has his prejudices due to his environment. But if this is true, is it not also true that a group of men, particularly if in control of a rich and successful property, are apt to have the prejudices of their environment—to become ultra-conservative, set in their views, detached from the current of daily affairs? This is what happens in banks, colleges, companies of all kinds. Indeed, since Mr. Ochs says that there is such a board now on the *Times*, it may explain why its editorial page is quite its least worthy part. Nor can we believe in a rotating chief editor as conducive to stability of policy. What is more important to assure is the rotating of young blood with fresh, new ideas and points of view.

With all due respect to Mr. Ochs, we do not feel that the London *Times* would have done less harm to the world during the last fifty years had it been controlled by a board—indeed, it may have been during the decline of the Walters ownership. Nor can we agree that the New York *Times* is as yet so great as to be beyond one-man direction. When we remember that men are found to exercise vast governmental powers with some success, the outlook is not hopeless. Again, a point that Mr. Ochs leaves untouched is, who is to control the purse-strings of the *Times*? The editorial board? Then will come instantly the deadening effect of financial control and responsibility. If another board of trustees, then will there probably be friction between the two. If the stock is to be owned by numerous persons, the difficulty of satisfying them will test the wisdom of any board of editors—particularly if the board should pursue a policy distasteful to the stockholders which might result in a loss of income. To our minds, no device of organization will take the place of the leadership of an individual who has something on his soul to set forth, some doctrines or theories to champion, some truths to drive home. No rotating board of editors could have produced a Horace Greeley or a Samuel Bowles or a Garrison—or have worked with them. The question whether an endowed newspaper can be free and have a soul is yet to be answered.

Taxes, Servants—And Bliss

PITY the poor housewife. On top of all her war troubles the Treasury now intends to interfere with her by inducing Congress to tax all servants beyond the one which is the inalienable right of every American family. From ten to one hundred per cent. of the wages of servants two, three, and four must go to the Government and one hundred per cent. of the pay of servants numbers five, six, seven, and above. That is, if one would have four servants or more one must be prepared to disburse double wages, with male servants costing more than female. Thus does the Government once more draw the sex line, but this time in favor of the women.

Serious as this is, we regard this proposed legislation as chiefly dangerous and distinctly unconstitutional because of its being class legislation, certain to aggrandize the powers of a specially privileged group in the community. We refer, of course, not to those wealthy persons whose domestics number seven or eight or ten—their troubles are grievous enough in hiring and keeping as many—but to the most privileged of all the working people, the august person who is housemaid, cook, and waitress combined. In England they advertise for her as "General Help" or "Cook-General." We shall soon have to go our British cousins one better, and give her the title of "Hindenburg Helper" or "Cook Field-Marshal," if our cold-hearted Treasury has its way. For that domineering person, before whom the head of the house bows down meekly, will now have additional power to bring us to our knees. She will strike—for the tenth time in the last four years—and demand that we share with her the tax we should have to pay if we had a second servant. By the same token will she insist on four nights a week out, cold supper every Sunday, and all the beds—including her own—to be made by the family lest she pronounce the work too much for one and demand a helper, plus tax, under pain of blacklisting ours as a "two-girl-job" at all agencies. Will she not even demand a service badge with a crossed broom and carpet-sweeper on a background of a blue dust-pan surmounted by the letters *F* and *U*, "Free and Untaxed"?

In our despair as to what is before us, we turned for consolation and comfort to the help-wanted advertisements in that journal of the wise aristocracy, the London *Morning Post*. It was plain at once that the higher classes in England are both beating the Hun and circumventing their tax-gatherers by taking to domestic service themselves. For in the *Post* we find such persons as these offering themselves: "Lady Gardeners," "Lady Motor-Drivers," "Lady-Helps," "Young Lady-Nurse," "Gentlewoman-Nurse-Companion," and "Lady-Housekeeper" (highly recommended by Lady Dodsworth and the Duchess of Buccleuch). Employers, too, have had their standards raised. Here is an advertisement for: "Three Ladies for House-Parlour Work in a School, initial salary £35, or might suit a superior Married Couple." A "Lady and Friend" (sex of latter not given) "want work on a farm, offering life experience dairy herd, poultry, pigs, and horses." Indeed, there are such numbers of ladies advertising, we are quite reassured as to the alleged danger of a dearth of domestics in America as the war progresses.

Moreover, there is greater specialization in England than ever. Thus, in a single issue of the *Post* we find offers for or by odd men, footmen, pantrymen, second men, a "Single-handed Gardener," under and upper-butlers, groom-butlers, groom-valets, first, second, third, and fourth housemaids, upper and under-parlour-maid and also house-parlour-maids, apparently a super-variety; head, second and under-laundrymaids; maid-housemaids—a *rara avis*—and, best of all, a Useful (!) Maid, besides sewing maids and maid-attendants (the latter desired by Lady Warrington, the Countess Inverstone, and the Honorable Mrs. G. Williams). As for the taxes on servants over there, we are sure we could escape them by securing the services of a Lady-Help-Useful-Cook-Maid-Housemaid-Under-Laundrymaid all in one. It would only require a little more hyphenating and we should not mind doing our own waiting when at table. We confess, however, that we do envy the English aristocrats who can afford to pay servant taxes. Our idea of bliss is to live on a small Devonshire farm kept up by a Lady and her Friend, entertained and cared for in the manor-house by a Gentlewoman-Nurse-Companion, an Odd-Man, a Lady-Help, a Lady-Maid-Housemaid, and a Lady-Cook-General, and driven in our Ford by a real Lady-Chauffeuse (A.B., Girton, 1916).

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An Englishman at the N. E. A.

By FRANK ROSCOE

(British Representative at the Conference of the National Education Association)

A BRITISHER attending the fifty-seventh Annual Convention of the National Education Association of the United States could hardly fail to recall a passage from an English novel, "Gryll Grange," written by Thomas Love Peacock, where one of the characters is made to say: "Sir, he was the bore of all bores; his subject had no beginning, middle, nor end. It was Education."

Let me hasten to add that this caustic utterance was in no way applicable to the Convention, for its proceedings were packed full of interest from beginning to end. The programme was a formidable one, and no visitor, however active of body and keen of spirit, could hope to do more than obtain a superficial glimpse of what was being done. During the brief space of five days there were held ninety-nine meetings, of which ten were general sessions. The list of speakers contained 450 names, and the actual number of speeches made must have been well over a thousand. The range of topics was indicated by the list of thirty-two organizations which held separate meetings during the five days and discussed themes as diversified as the Americanization of aliens, the promotion of classical studies, the development of rural education, the relation of democracy in education to democracy in government, and woman's part in financing the war. This somewhat bewildering variety of subject-matter is a common feature of educational conferences everywhere and is due to the fact, too seldom recognized, that educational work is not to be considered in and for itself alone. At countless points it touches upon and overlaps the larger questions of public welfare, whose study is embraced in sociology. The range of school subjects and the technique of teaching them are constantly becoming wider, but beyond this there is a growing tendency to regard the school as a miniature community wherein the youthful members of the nation may be prepared for the tasks of citizenship which await them in the future. The traditional and necessary material of school instruction is still found in the subjects of reading, writing, and arithmetic, but these are coming to be regarded rightly as nothing more than useful appliances. Beyond this instruction there is the matter of training; for true education, as Plato pointed out, is not confined to the acquisition of knowledge, but is rather a process of nurture, whereby the young mind and body are led to adapt themselves to the needs of life.

As these needs tend to become more extensive, it follows that the schools are charged with ever-increasing responsibilities, and the educator is compelled to give consideration to the entire field of social activity. Instead of being a mere instructor or conduit pipe of formal knowledge, the modern teacher should be a zealous social reformer, alive to the needs of the community and devoted to the training of those who will supply them in the coming years. This serves at once to justify and to explain the compendious nature of the programme of a modern educational conference, reflecting, as it does, the dual relation between the community and the school, the community of to-day being the maker of the schools, while these in their turn are making the community of to-morrow.

It follows that the modern educator must be onward-looking, eager to envision the fabric of a new world and resolved to play a part in its realization. At Pittsburgh this consideration furnished the dominant note, as exemplified in the discussions on Americanization, on Federal Control of Education, and on the question of Vocational Training. These topics, and indeed all those which came under review, were placed against the background of the war. To us in Europe this background has become sombre in hue, darkened by the memory of countless personal sorrows and many national disappointments. At Pittsburgh it was bright with hope, irradiated with the excitement of a new enterprise, and vivid with the expectation of an early and complete victory. Great wars inevitably pass through the stage of sanguine hope to that of sanguinary memories, and it was to be expected that the former stage would be the more prominent in the Convention. Thus it happened that from the first general session, when the representatives of Belgium, France, Italy, and Great Britain were welcomed with fervent cordiality and every expression of sincere good will, down to the smaller gatherings of specialists, there was a recurrent note of patriotic feeling. Occasionally, it must be confessed, one felt that it might have been omitted, or left to be assumed instead of being uttered. Regard for one's country might be taken for granted, as are the sentiments of affection which decent people feel towards their own families, without the need for public protestation. It is easy for speakers to win applause by a robust declaration on war policy, but this practice tends to result in vain repetition, with consequent loss of effect. Once, indeed, at the Convention, we were brought perilously near to the ludicrous, for on one evening a speaker told a pathetic story of the patriotism of a certain farmer, and on the following evening another speaker told the same story to the same audience and was probably somewhat puzzled to find that it evoked little response. The reason was that our interest in the story was swamped by the feeling that the good farmer was in some danger of being overworked.

That the note of patriotic feeling had some justification, however, became apparent during the discussions on Americanization. To a visitor from abroad these were profoundly interesting, as revealing the nature of a task which in its extremely complicated character and great scope is peculiar to the schools of America. In no other country is there to be found the urgent problem of receiving and digesting so many varied elements of racial diversity and social experience. The constant inflow of these different elements, with the consequent task of assimilating them to the life of this country, calls for unremitting effort on the part of every educational agency. It also demands that the national spirit shall be intense and powerful enough to receive additions and to absorb them without losing its own distinctive character in the process. It is as if we had a vessel containing fluid of a given color and sought to pour into it fluids of other hues without destroying that of the original. Were the fluids of varying specific gravities or not to be mixed, they would tend to keep apart. But we desire them to mix, and if the final color is to be determined by that of the original fluid, it is necessary that this fluid should be of

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powerful and predominating color. At the risk of laboring the figure, it may be added that a violent agitation will help to mingle the fluids. Some people claim that war is such an agitation, but it is to be noted that even the most violent agitation will not mix fluids permanently. They will separate again when the shaking ceases. War alone will not produce a permanent blending of national elements unless these are changed in their essential character and made capable of mixing in the manner which distinguishes a solution from a mere emulsion or temporary blending. This essential change can be brought about only by methods of a social and educational character, a fact which was duly recognized in the discussions on Americanization, where it was held that unity of language followed by a considered effort to teach immigrants the main facts of American national life, would serve to counter in some measure the obvious dangers of continued stratification and of the development of separate nationalities within the confines of the American nation. Mr. Franklin K. Lane, Secretary of the Interior, told the Convention that he desired the teaching of Americanism, which he defined as an intense nationalism, wholly different from internationalism. He might have reminded us that nationalism is not opposed to internationalism. Nations may develop their own lives and still preserve international harmony, just as families may live in adjoining houses and maintain strong domestic affections without seeking to injure one another.

Closely related to this topic was that introduced by Dr. John H. MacCracken, president of Lafayette College, Easton, Pa., who spoke strongly in favor of a Federal Department of Education, with a Minister in the Cabinet. This proposal attracted much attention and appeared to be favorably received. A visitor from England, however, could hardly fail to observe that there was a somewhat imperfect realization of the difficulties which attend centralized control. Educational systems are less important than education, and a central Government office tends inevitably to value system and uniformity unless it is supplemented and checked by strong local bodies able to interpret local needs and conditions and powerful enough to prevent the imposition of mere prescriptions from above. Centralized control will also press very hardly upon the teachers, unless they in their turn are strongly united and thus become able to modify or reject prescriptions in the light of their professional knowledge and experience. With these cautions properly regarded, there is an evident advantage in having a measure of centralized effort, designed to secure that no child shall be unfairly handicapped because he happens to be born in one district rather than another. The educational system of a country should provide the utmost measure of variety and elasticity, but nowhere should it fall below a minimum standard or fail to offer to all young citizens an equal opportunity of fitting themselves for the duties of life. A central department may thus perform a useful function as a clearing house for ideas and as a repository of educational standards at home and abroad; while a Minister of Education may do much to collect, express, and further the general national aims in regard to education. An especially attractive feature of Dr. MacCracken's proposal was that there should be established a system of educational attachés abroad. This plan, if carried out, would afford an excellent means of building up an understanding and sympathy between the nations of the world. It would be free from the implications of future hostility which are associated with the practice of appointing military and naval attachés and would furnish a concrete expression of a desire to establish an understanding based on ideas. It might serve also to correct certain misapprehensions which arise from the treatment of history in the schools of different countries. Each successive generation of children comes into the world wholly devoid of national hatreds, but it often happens that these are instilled and fostered by textbooks and lessons in which emphasis is wrongly placed on past events.

The teachers of America are evidently turning their minds in the direction of an organization more closely knit together than is the National Education Association. The problem is a domestic one, and therefore not to be discussed by an outsider. It is to be hoped, however, that the annual Convention will never become a mere political gathering, absorbed in the discussion of questions of salary, conditions of service, and such topics. It is the duty of teachers to discuss the principles underlying their work and to show that they have a professional spirit. Such discussions were a marked feature of the Pittsburgh meeting and proved to be extremely stimulating and valuable to the visitor from abroad. Not less interesting were the various exhibits, such as the School of Childhood, the Hygiene Section, and the War Work Department. The advocates of classical studies supplemented their enthusiastic meeting by an exhibit designed to show the utility of Latin and Greek. The argument was of doubtful value, since it sought to prove that the classical languages were indispensable to an understanding of modern English. Carried to the limits, this would demand a study of all the languages which have contributed to our own tongue, including Anglo-Saxon, Dutch, Arabic, and Hebrew. Even as presented, the exhibit was made the more unconvincing by two unlucky slips. Thus it was suggested that words derived from "Mercury" might be understood with the aid of a picture of the messenger of the gods and a knowledge of the mythology relating to him. The picture was provided, and underneath it appeared the legend: "Mercury—hence murcurial." On another chart was the word "Historia" with the word "hystorical" as a derivative. These hapless examples reminded one of Artemus Ward's criticism of Chaucer as "a good pote, but he cuddent spell." Surely the valid argument for classical studies is to be found in something more substantial than philology, and it is best to face the fact that, although we cannot defend the compulsory and universal teaching of Latin and Greek, yet they must remain as elements in education, to be taken up by those who show aptitude for them, and to be recognized as the true source of our Western literature, laws, and art.

Finally, I should like to say that the convention was distinguished by a quality which we in England always associate with American education, namely, a promptitude in seizing new ideas and a willingness to give ready consideration to them. This is the true antiseptic of teaching work, an occupation which tends inevitably to establish a regard for routine and a conservatism of soul, such as destroy the teacher's real efficiency and transform his work into a "dull mechanic art." Freshness of view and alertness of mind were the distinguishing features of the convention as an educational meeting, and as a social gathering it furnished countless memories of generous hospitality and of cordial good will such as make one wish that the teachers of the Allied nations could come together in larger numbers and at more frequent intervals and so pave the way to a permanent educational entente.

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Great Britain's Financial Outlook

By WILLIAM MacDONALD

ENGLISH public opinion is beginning to be seriously concerned over the growing volume of war expenditure and war debt. A number of influential journals, not inclined ordinarily to alarmist talk, have been commenting sharply of late on the heedless extravagance of the House of Commons in voting money and of some of the executive departments in spending it. Mr. F. W. Hirst's financial weekly, *Common Sense,* devotes the leading editorial in its issue of June 22 to a caustic review of the financial situation, apropos of the recent request of the Chancellor of the Exchequer for a further vote of £500,000,000. "Every intelligent person who will give an hour's reflection to the subject," writes Mr. Hirst, "will admit that Great Britain and its allies, as well as Germany and Austria, have gone a long way on the road to financial ruin." The total votes of credit given by the House of Commons since the beginning of the war, including the £500,000,000 asked for by Mr. Bonar Law on June 18, aggregate £7,342,000,000. The recent vote, if the present rate of expenditure is kept up, will carry the Treasury only to the end of August. "Six months ago," says Mr. Hirst,

> Lord Lansdowne solemnly warned the country to take heed of realities and to modify its war aims with a view to hastening peace before ruin overtook Europe and the British Empire. . . . Since Lord Lansdowne wrote, Mr. Law has been adding 40 millions a week to the dead-weight debt, and the normal income tax has been raised to six shillings in the pound. . . . The least period which Mr. Lloyd George's friend, Lord Leverhulme, allows for bringing German militarism to its knees by military means is three years, which means a debt of no less than twelve thousand millions By that time we must expect the normal rate of income tax to be not less than ten and probably as much as twelve shillings in the pound, and it may be graduated up to nineteen shillings in the pound. The debt due to the United States will be enormous. And instead of receiving interest from the United States as we did before the war in the shape of food and raw material, we shall have to pay interest to America in the shape of manufactured goods.

The *Spectator,* in its issue of June 22, joins in the protest against "the absolutely reckless way in which public money is still being spent."

> From the beginning of the war private individuals outside Parliament and a minority of members of Parliament have exerted themselves to secure some economy in public expenditure. It must be sorrowfully recorded that their efforts, with a few minor exceptions, have been in vain. So far from any economy being effected, the scale of extravagance has grown ever more lavish. At the present moment we ought to be spending relatively less than we were at a time when Russia accounted for a large part of our financial burden. Russia has fallen out of the war, but instead of any reduction there is an increase of three-quarters of a million a day in this year's estimates as compared with last year's expenditure.

The London *Nation,* in its issue of the same date, notes that the House of Commons

> has begun to realize the profligacy of the Government's war finance, the absence of control, and its own powerlessness to staunch the mortal wound. . . . Over seven thousand millions of expenditure, an outlay of 7¾ millions a day, a possible after-war budget of seven, or eight, or even nine hundred millions, a vision of taxation that the country's returning soldiers will not pay, nor its industries support! Anyhow, any-whither, flow the millions; a light-hearted Celt speeds the stream along. The Chancellor indeed is not a Celt, but a Lowland Scot. Yet this overworked man does practically no real Treasury business, and when he even mentions it, talks of millions as if they were bawbees; while neither he nor his chief has even dreamed of reorganizing his once all-powerful office, so as to dam up at least a channel or two in the general rush to ruin. At present, the Treasury can do nothing. It has long been overborne. There is only one remedy, and that is the direct and unflinching revolt of Parliament.

That an appreciable part of Great Britain's colossal expenditure is due, not to the inevitable necessities of war, but to gross carelessness, swollen lists of civil servants, and political favoritism, is the charge brought against the Government by the journals just quoted and by others of equal standing. A Parliamentary paper lately issued shows a list of eighty-six members of the House of Commons who hold office under the Crown. Of these, twenty-seven are unpaid, while three draw pay from the army. In addition, about one hundred members are serving in the army, receiving military pay in addition to their £400 a year as members of Parliament. The return does not include the recipients of what is known as War Aims money, or of moneys expended by the Information Ministry; and it naturally omits those members who are said to receive secret-service money. *Common Sense,* from whose summary of the paper the foregoing figures are taken, declares that "it may be doubted whether there has been anything like it since the time of Lord North." The London *Economist* (June 15), while recognizing that "every allowance has to be made for those who are engaged in the titanic business of directing the nation's energies at this time," and confessing that "constant carping is a most unwelcome occupation in view of the tremendous results that have been achieved in the face of great difficulties," nevertheless declares that "it would be criminal to ignore the fact that the nation's effort is seriously weakened by the waste and muddling of which new examples appear week by week, and that public opinion is growing increasingly, and quite rightly, restive on the subject."

The *Spectator,* which is of the opinion that some of the departments are greatly overstaffed, gives some striking facts, drawn from an official report, regarding conditions in February last, since which date there have been further increases.

> The Ministry of Munitions, as the public will expect, heads the list with a central staff at the headquarters office in London of no less than 16,809 persons, exclusive of the staffs of the provincial offices, of arsenals and national factories. This London staff costs the gigantic sum of £2,775,000 a year. There can be not the slightest hesitation in saying that a staff of this magnitude is not only unnecessary, but is actually obstructive to national work. It is enormously in excess of the corresponding staff in Paris, which, as we are able to state authoritatively, consists of 2,600 persons. . . . The War Office comes next with a staff of 16,100; then the Ministry of National Service with a headquarters staff of 994, and "regional and local staffs" amounting to 13,516. What the Ministry of National Service does with its 14,000 officials nobody has ever in public explained, but there is good reason to believe that a considerable portion of its activities is devoted to struggling with the Employment Exchange Department, which in turn has staffs amounting to 5,763. In addition to these two bodies, which largely overlap and confuse one another, we have the Ministry of Pensions with a staff

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of 5,714. . . . The total number of persons employed in February last was 94,500, and the annual cost was £13,308,000.

The debate on the subject in the House of Commons on June 19 was remarkably frank. Mr. Herbert Samuels, chairman of the Committee on Public Expenditure, charged that the "military chiefs" of the War Office "have adopted deliberately obstructive tactics. They have been playing with the Committee in this matter, and playing with the House of Commons." He hoped "that it would not be necessary again to draw the attention of the House to a matter which was becoming a public scandal." Mr. Bonar Law made an extended reply which the *Economist* characterizes as "pleasant and pretty," displaying the "amiable optimism which is so grave a weakness in a Chancellor of the Exchequer at such a time as this"; pointing out that the Chancellor

> gave no answer to the charge that the Government is paying absurd prices for goods and labor, employing a quite unnecessary quantity of inefficient labor, which clogs the machine, and misusing the country's resources and man-power in a manner which cannot fail to impair our powers to stay this course. When we consider what the stakes are, it is intolerable that our staying power should be impaired by misplaced amiability.

The Chancellor of the Exchequer, in his defence, was not quite so general as the *Economist* implies. He pointed out that the work of the War Office, for example, was now twenty-six times greater than in the first months of the war, and that there would have been neither coal nor wool in sufficient quantities if ordinary market prices had had to be paid. He also showed appreciable reductions in prices of a number of articles.

For the United States, such a picture of England's financial difficulties should carry its own lesson. On July 10 it was announced from Washington that the loans made to the Allies now total $6,091,590,000 and are increasing at the rate of nearly $400,000,000 a month. This prodigious annual increment of nearly $4,800,000,000 is in addition, of course, to expenditures on our own account for the war and domestic needs. It is not too early to ask how long this immense volume of expenditure, this portentous accumulation of debt which the people of the United States, wage-earners and capitalists alike, will eventually have to pay, can be kept up without bringing the nation, as Mr. Hirst declares that Great Britain and the Allies have already been brought, to the verge of financial ruin. The easy temper in which Congress keeps on voting the nation into debt indicates even less disposition than has lately been shown by the House of Commons to challenge the Government programme of expenditure or insist upon economy. With a long and indefinite list of boards, commissions, and Federal "Administrations," each with a small army of employees, continuing to spend money like water—250,000 civilian employees, it is announced, are already overseas—and with little interest at Washington in coördinating or supervising executive agencies and none at all in a Federal budget system, the United States, too, is in grave danger of exhausting its financial resources, dissipating its man power, and jeopardizing its ability to stand the strain which a distracted and well-nigh exhausted world is more and more putting upon us. The only remedy for England, as the London *Nation* points out, is the "direct and unflinching revolt of Parliament." The only safety for the United States is an equally "direct and unflinching" assertion by Congress and the public of their right to know how and where the public money is being spent and what the nation is getting in return.

The Phrase Delusive

By JOHN BUNKER

MY friend the illustrator had just gone, but of all the wise talk we had had together only one remark stayed in my mind. In fact, the instant he made it, I had given it peculiar, if adverse, regard. The circumstances were these: he being an admirer of that well-known "black and white" English artist of the '90's, Phil May, had been telling me tales of his hero, and at last as the climax of his eulogy he came out with the dubious statement. "Whistler," he declared buoyantly, "our own James McNeil Whistler once said that he knew of no artist in the field of 'black and white' but Phil May."

Now, here I was placed in a quandary; for, with that liberal choice with which fate so often plagues us, I had two courses before me. Should I with manly firmness point out that, as the actors say, he was misreading the line, that he was neglecting his pauses, that he was stifling a pun, that, in short, what the gay and mocking "Master" had really said was, "I know of no artist in the field of 'black and white,' but Phil may"? Should I do this? Or should I allow my friend the fine full flavor of a supposititious compliment? My path was plain. . . . I let him be glad in his error.

But, though I did not correct my friend, my forbearance was not wholly the effect of good-nature; for had I not cause for more intimate accusation? Could I not recall instances of personal mistake, which, though long past, it is true, were yet "by food of saddest memory kept alive"? Just at what period of my nonage it was that I first misapprehended the title—with which alone I was then acquainted—of Gray's "Ode on a Distant Prospect of Eton College" I do not remember; but the fact of the misapprehension is clear, and (my mind at that time, I suppose, being full of the stories of poor and ambitious scholars) for long months I lived in the idea that that piece was the poet's melodious lament on the remote chance of his becoming an Etonian. Nor could it have been long after this that a line of Stevenson's lodged in my mind in solitary state and with a strange twist of its meaning; so that even now I never hear "Sixteen men on the dead man's chest" without trying to visualize the colossal proportions of the defunct mariner on whose bosom such a number of men could dispose themselves.

Reflecting on these things, I fell into a consideration of similar misconceptions, and among the most notable in that kind I almost immediately hit upon that cynical remark of Samuel Foote to the effect that "a friend in need is a friend indeed." To this observation custom, that heavy-handed tyrant, has affixed the significance that one who is a friend to us when we are in need is indeed a friend, thus giving an entirely different turn to the original words, which meant, quite literally, just what they said, that a friend who is in need is a friend with a vengeance! But where evil things are thus turned to good uses, it would be ungracious perhaps to quarrel with the process. Not so tender, however, am I towards a certain other popular saying, and whenever I hear it I feel all my logical and rational nature rising up violently against the assertion that "the exception proves (*i. e.*, establishes) the rule," my nicer judgment insisting that the exception merely *tests* the rule.

These epigrams remind me of a friend who troubles me occasionally with his novel interpretation of the familiar

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Biblical saying that "Charity covers a multitude of sins." That charity here signifies not almsgiving or philanthropy, as is commonly supposed, but love, and more specifically love of God, is, of course, no news to him as to one acquainted with the original *caritas*. But that is not the root of his difficulty, which he proceeds to lay bare, as follows. This text, so he is fond of explaining, is generally taken to mean that he who practices charity thereby covers in the sight of God a multitude of his sins; or, more freely, that God in the case of the charitable man will overlook many of his derelictions. But such is my friend's idiosyncrasy that God in the case of the charitable man will overlook many of divine lenity, but as a description of virtuous conduct, meaning simply that charity veils from the eyes of its possessor a multitude of sins *in others*.

Following these examples, it is with some diffidence we put forward that comment of Hamlet on the nightly carouse of the king, that it was "a custom more honored in the breach than in the observance." Here the emphasis is usually placed on "breach" as contrasted with "observance," with the result that the line is frequently quoted in general talk where it is distinctly not *apropos*. The which, O learned reader, should not occur if, as we suppose, the chief point of the remark lies in the word "honored." This, however, is a delicate question, as is likewise that query we once heard put to a lover of letters (not unfamiliar with his Bunyan), how he would pronounce the title of Thackeray's "Vanity Fair"—whether he would emphasize the first word or the second? A perilous point, and one on which we have known many hard syllables broken.

Quite pardonable, even in British eyes, we suppose was the mistake of the American who thought that the Bank holiday of our English cousins was a riparian festival, the words calling up before him visions of happy folk strolling the shores of fair streams or haply disposing of their lunch thereon after the manner of our picnic. Indeed, he shone innocent and without offence compared with the compatriot who, on beholding a volume labelled "The Attic Poets," opined that after all the proper abode of the followers of the Muses was the garret. And it was manifestly an own cousin to this last worthy who fancied that Greek roots were a new kind of vegetable.

To such a symposium as this, of course, the blundering schoolboy will not be denied; but we have room for only two of *him*. Once—the occasion was a school commencement—a certain young hero was told off to recite that poem of Gray's which has had the unspeakable misfortune of attracting the world's too favorable regard. But when he came to that line where the poet gives us the pathetic information,

> The moping owl doth to the moon complain,

the wild work began, and we submit that not even an ornithologist would recognize the habits of "the *mopping* owl." But "in the lowest deep, a lower deep"; and no doubt this last Herod was out-Heroded by the youth who in speaking of "The Three Musketeers" so adroitly shifted the accent on to the second syllable of the noun as to make us believe he was referring, with bucolic pronunciation, to the insect indigenous to the swamps of New Jersey.

Here, then, discerning reader, is a collection of choice blunders; nor can we wish you any happier fortune than to be numbered—as we are proud to be numbered—among the goodly folk who make them. For there are two grand divisions of mankind: those who make mistakes and, *monstra horrenda!* those who correct them. The first provoke our laughter, the second our spleen; the former move us to innocent merriment, the latter to thoughts most violent and bloody. It is this vice of correction, indeed, which renders the society of teachers as a class so trying to ordinary frail humanity; but the vice is by no means confined to them, and hardly any of us is unfamiliar with that uneasy companion who conceives it his peculiar office to set straight his errant fellows. In his presence we have verily to speak by the card; for this is he who arrests the feeble phrase, spears the hapless mispronunciation, pounces on the inadvertent solecism, and in general seems determined that "every nice offence shall bear *his* comment." Or, if he adopt a less brutal method and, forbearing to give you the correction direct, take pains to bring into play again—only this time correctly—the word or the phrase which you but the moment before had unluckily bungled, there is a kind of knowing look in his eye most galling to the sensitive spirit—or he wears an air of mock humility which is even worse. Such a creature poisons the sweet springs of social amenity, or rather he diffuses an atmosphere of subtle suspicion wherein each man walks guarded and alert and reluctant to lay forth his verbal possessions for fear he will be bludgeoned by his neighbor. In this unholy state grammar becomes a man-trap and a gin for the unwary; conversation a dissecting room of dead phrases, a clinic of mangled sentences. Truly this is "most tolerable and not to be endured."

Foreign Correspondence

Anglo-American Interpreters

London, June 10

THE warning of Professor A. C. McLaughlin is a word of shrewdness and wisdom: "We talk of coming together. If we don't take care, we shall pass each other in the dark." Numerous historical examples remind us that alliance in war is a very slender thread with which to bind two nations together. But a war alliance may be profitably used as an opportunity for employing other means of securing a closer permanent association between two peoples that have united their forces for the moment in a common cause. The atmosphere, at any rate, is more favorable just now than ever before to bringing about Professor McLaughlin's ideal of an "intimate and intelligent friendliness" between England and America.

It is a matter of opinion how far a deliberate propaganda of amity can really be effective. But even those who most doubt the value of such efforts must admit that, as far as it went, Professor McLaughlin's recent mission to academic circles in England was of the right sort. His lectures were truly edifying, and their incisive style and brisk humor saved them from any risk of dulness. The subject announced for the course at University College, London, was "The Historical Causes of America's Entry into the War," but it was extended to cover the whole ground of the history of Anglo-American relations. A clumsy or tactless speaker might have done more harm than good by dealing with such a topic, but Professor McLaughlin, while leaving no doubt of his thorough-going Americanism, skated over vast expanses of thin ice with the utmost adroitness. One

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of the most useful services he rendered was in showing the connection between the development of democracy in America and in England. He spoke, indeed, of the American Revolution as itself "a creative incident in the development of British Liberalism." He went back to the sixteenth century to point out how the forces that expressed themselves later in the Declaration of Independence and the American Constitution were even at that time in conflict with the old autocratic and oligarchical traditions. He quoted the saying that the American Revolution was the England of the seventeenth century arising to combat the England of the eighteenth." "We," added Professor McLaughlin, "were the England of the seventeenth century, and we were inspired by the principles of the Cromwellian uprising." After America broke away, the struggle between the old forces of privilege and the new forces of liberty still continued in the mother country, and England went moving forward steadily to an extent that Americans had not realized as they should have done. The lecturer emphasized the reaction upon the whole of Europe of the success that America was making of democracy. England was changing her old conditions little by little, and her conservative classes resented the following of American example in the greater democratization of their own institutions. It was to this resentment that Professor McLaughlin largely attributed the strained relations between the two countries at the time of the American Civil War. The conservative element in England was disappointed in its hope that the war would prove the breakdown of democratic government, and for that reason was unsympathetic to the Union cause. If he were asked when England became the friend of America, he would reply: In August, 1867, when England passed the Reform bill, and thus committed herself to democracy. So the American Civil War, like the American Revolution, was a step forward in British history.

The concluding lecture of the course was devoted to an account of the history and significance of the Monroe Doctrine—"a very chameleon among doctrines," the lecturer called it. Incidentally he brought home to his audience the complexity of the South American problem by remarking that it was a difficulty very much like the Balkan question or that of North Africa. But, while the Caribbean region was undoubtedly a new danger-point for America and the world, he could not see that American and British interests there were any different. This exposition of the Monroe Doctrine led up to a reference to President Wilson's Mobile speech of 1913 as "on the whole, I think, the best thing he has done, and done off the bat, without the lessons of this terrible war." Non-intrusion, freedom for the big nation and the small, friendliness and helpfulness in coöperation—these ideas had been growing for the last twenty years in American foreign policy, and Professor McLaughlin believed they would be the basis of a new Monroe Doctrine for the whole world.

Unfortunately, under present conditions, such lectures as Professor McLaughlin's reach only a little distance. He lectured not only in London, but at Oxford and Cambridge—at those universities, not to them, for the real Oxford and Cambridge are nowadays at the front. And the wider diffusion that, in normal times, these utterances would gain through the press, is just now prevented by the shortage of paper and therefore of space. At the first lecture of the course Mr. Balfour took the chair, and his address was reported in most of the London daily papers the next morning. Of the lecture itself practically nothing was given. This implied no discourtesy to the American visitor. If the lecturer had been a specialist from Oxford or Edinburgh instead of from Chicago he would have received the same treatment. After all, Mr. Balfour is a more conspicuous public figure than any university professor, and when he had drawn his space ration there was none left over for the speaker whom he introduced.

Meanwhile, all the time the people of the one country are gaining impressions of the life and characteristics of the people of the other through the books they read. Professor McLaughlin referred to this when he said that the "lampoons" of Dickens and Mrs. Trollope had done "untold damage." For myself, I should be inclined to demur to this judgment on two grounds. In the first place, I believe that the descriptions of contemporary America in Dickens and Mrs. Trollope had more justification than would be inferred from the use of the word "lampoon." Second, I am sure that the effect of these books upon English opinion is greatly overestimated. What is commonly overlooked in discussions of this topic is the fact that no nation was ever really written down except by its own writers. The English people to-day get their ideas of America not from Dickens and Mrs. Trollope or from any of their successors among British authors who have visited the United States. The New York that they picture to themselves is the New York of Edith Wharton and Robert W. Chambers. Their West is the West of Frank Norris and Hugh Fuller. Their ideas of American politics are derived not from anything their own countrymen have told them of intrigues at Washington and the State capitals, but from "Coniston" and "The Gentleman from Indiana." If any nation wishes to insure that the seamy side of its civilization shall be kept from the knowledge of other countries, its first step must be to prohibit absolutely the export of its home-produced fiction. Foreign readers inevitably conclude that the representation of social conditions found in these books is a trustworthy record of fact. Native writers would not make such damaging confessions before the whole world if they were not true. Unlike the native reader, the foreigner does not possess the background of fuller knowledge that would enable him to discern how far the novelist's descriptions are concerned with the abnormal.

There is another influence on international understanding that has not yet received anything like its due recognition. While the educated classes in England derive their main impressions of America from American fiction, the masses receive their instruction on the subject from the "movies." American enterprise has brought it about that, ever since the cinema became a remunerative entertainment, the British picture palaces have bought the larger proportion of their films from American manufacturers. The result is that, to the people who turn habitually to the moving picture for their recreation, America means the land where those extraordinary adventures take place that are so vividly recorded on the screen. The effect can be seen even on every-day British idiom and vocabulary. Through this medium many American locutions that ten years ago were almost unknown in England have by this time become perfectly acclimatized here. It is not so easy to trace the impression made by the "movies" upon British conceptions of American life and character, but that it has been deep and far-reaching there cannot be the slightest doubt.

HERBERT W. HORWILL

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Gardens

By BABETTE DEUTSCH

INTO the dropping sun as into a warm flower
The strong wind breaks.
Petals on glowing petals shower
In gorgeous rain,
Crimsoning windows, dyeing the passionless city
With wild pomegranate stain.
The tropic hour
Fades slowly,
Slowly the evening flower
Puts forth its luminous blues and lucent jades,
Opening only to withdraw and close
Before the unfolding of night's velvet rose,
Trembling with starry dews.
Gold is the scentless garden of the sky,
Imperishably bright.
Yet we who lie under its glory, crushing the young grass,
Turn from it, as from beauty in a glass,
To the flowers that spring near us, that will die.

Correspondence

Constitutional and Institutional

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: May I comment on one point in the kind review of my book in your issue of June 29? It is that the story of the growth and final triumph of the limited monarchy "is not the whole of English constitutional history." I quite agree with the writer's meaning, but I should have said, I think, "is not the whole of English institutional history."

Since "institutional" seems to have made a place for itself in general usage in spite of some of the dictionary makers, it would seem to be desirable that a distinction should be made between it and "constitutional." I have tried to use the latter as meaning the total body of governmental institutions looked at as a whole, the entire machine seen without particular attention to its parts, the organism rather than the organs, and the former as the same body when special regard is had to the parts of which it is composed, the way in which they are combined, and the effect of the combination upon each. With this distinction in mind, institutional history should emphasize the development of the separate institutions, the process of their combination, and their working together one with another as parts of a whole. Constitutional history should emphasize the whole as it exists and operates and develops in successive stages with special regard to the larger influences which have affected the history and to results which are national or general. While no separation can be made which is strictly exclusive, it is possible, I think, to write a history of each of these aspects of the subject distinct from the other and also one which comprises both in a single account. I am not sure, of course, that this distinction can be established, nor indeed that it is worth establishing, but I have found it useful myself.

In a history which endeavors to give a clear bird's-eye view of a long movement, the question of omission is as important and is more difficult than the question of inclusion, for the two questions are not quite the same. I felt in writing this book that anything largely episodical, not an essential part of the main current, that is, more institutional than constitutional in character, like the history of the Privy Council, as complicating the narrative and distracting the reader's attention, had better be omitted, but I am aware that another writer with the same intention would very likely make a different choice. Influenced, I suppose, by considerations like these, I find it hard to bring myself to admit that the history of the limited monarchy, as the controlling and directing factor in the whole constitutional development, is not essentially the constitutional history of England. GEORGE BURTON ADAMS

Newport, Vt., July 2

Comments of a Belgian Poet

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The April–June number of the *Sewanee Quarterly Review* is an attractive number. Mr. Summerfield Baldwin's article, "The Æsthetic Theory of Edgar Poe," is an interesting, though insufficient, study of the poet considered as a critic. Two very good articles are "On Re-reading Meredith" and "The Rhythm of Prose and Free Verse." I don't know who Mr. John Gould Fletcher is, but the four verses of his quoted in this last-mentioned study are full of sound and energy. Nor do I know what Mr. Baldwin means when, on page 217, he speaks of "Rossetti's 'Monna Vanna.'" Of course, "Monna Vanna" is a drama by Maeterlinck. However, the *Sewanee Review* looks like a very serious and good periodical. ANDRE FONTAINAS

Paris, June 18

Prizes and Publicity

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I wish to endorse Duncan Savage's suggestion, appearing in the *Nation* of July 6, that some society of national fame publish in advance notices of all open prizes in the United States and of the conditions governing the award. By the merest accident I learned that the Loubat prize was to be awarded this year. Whether this previous knowledge and the consequent nomination of my book by any publishers were of value to me I do not know, for I am ignorant of the procedure of the committee of award; but I hope that for the honor of the prize they were permitted by the conditions to make the widest possible search for books which might enter into the competition. In the case of the Pulitzer prize, however, awarded last year for the best book on American history published during 1916, such was not the procedure, as I happen to know; and I wish to tell the story in the hope of furthering the interests of future competitors for all prizes.

Late in January, 1917, I learned by chance about the prize, but not of the conditions—there was no publicity given to the competition. Immediately I instructed my publishers to investigate the subject. Their letter of inquiry, dated February 1, elicited the information that only such books as were duly nominated and sent to the committee by *February 1* were to be considered.

The award of the prize was made to an excellent historical

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study, and a consideration of my production would probably not have altered the decision of the committee in this case; but certainly such rigid conditions demand the widest publicity.

C. W. ALVORD

Urbana, Ill., July 8

Does Chauvinism Pay?

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The connection between the teaching of history and international prejudice, brought out by Professor Scott's article in the *Nation* of May 4, seems to be well established. Your author cites Professor McLaughlin's "History of the American Nation," with which my pupils happen to be familiar; and it seems to suit them very well. How does it happen that the author, who is coldly scientific in his contributions to historical scholarship, returns to the vein of chauvinistic slap-dash in the newest edition of his popular school text? Is it because chauvinism pays? Has not "twisting the lion's tail" brought forth shekels for the twister or for the twister's employer, the publisher? That is what the people like; the publisher expects, as I am aware, that the author will give the people what they like. It pays. It is the same problem which we have in yellow journalism.

L. A. CHASE

Houghton, Mich., May 11

Universal Military Training

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I wonder why you so often speak of universal military training as synonymous with militarism. May I ask the grounds upon which you base this identification? Has such training fostered militarism in Switzerland or Australia, for example? Has it not been the salvation of France? Would it not, in our own case, have been of priceless value? In the instance of Germany, is it not the effect, rather than the cause, of militarism?

No one loathes militarism or is a more ardent advocate of peace (a real peace, not one made in Germany) than I, yet I am an equally ardent advocate of universal military training—not because it will make good soldiers, but because it will make good American citizens. Among the great problems confronting us to-day are these: First, to banish the class hatred, so ingeniously stimulated, for their own selfish purposes, by politicians, labor agitators, Bolsheviki; and, second, to eliminate the racial cleavages in our population which menace our social peace and clog our progress towards national unity. If the United States is to become a real melting-pot of the nations, a term so frequently, airily, and mistakenly employed, we must close up these gaps in our body politic and produce a homogeneous people, speaking the same language, governed by the same traditions, cherishing the same ideals, and reverencing the same flag. Many of us believe that these results can be achieved only through universal military training, bringing together under one discipline aliens and Americans, rich and poor alike; and we smile at the suggestion that this school of patriotism and genuine democracy could possibly be prostituted into a shrine of Mars. There is nothing in the genius or the antecedents of the American people to warrant such an inference or to justify such a fear. Do you approve of this fusing of our heterogeneous elements which we advocates of universal military training have in view? If so, what other instrumentality do you recommend as competent to achieve these results?

Speaking not only for myself, but for many parents, I favor universal military training for the good it will do to our boys, regarding its military advantages as a by-product, welcome but wholly secondary.

The *Nation* has been so long my guide in politics and sociology that I am pained to find myself at variance with any of its views, especially in a matter which appears to me vitally important to our future welfare. If I am wrong in my convictions as just expressed, I pray you to set me right.

CASPAR F. GOODRICH

Philadelphia, April 22

How Will They Square Themselves?

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The *Nation* is one of the few publications that, during a period of war and international blood-letting, when, in a sense, the insane so largely control the sane, keep their heads above the waves of the ocean of hatred, steering ever towards the goal of democracy and international good will. Its courageous editorial policy is a factor in counteracting the political inquisition which a large number of American patriots would enforce on those who dare to have an opinion and express it, even in war time.

On every hand we are implored to back the Government in this war to make the world safe for democracy, and to kill that monster, German militarism. A large part of the Americanization propaganda is carried on by the National Security League, the American Defence Society, the Vigilantes, Chambers of Commerce, and Defence Councils. In so far as these organizations are furthering the principles of true democracy (equality of opportunity), I have no fault to find with them. Where I take issue with them—and it seems to me every true American should do the same—is in their advocacy of universal military training as a permanent institution in America at the present time. How do the National Security League and its powerful spokesman, former President Roosevelt, square themselves in their fight to destroy everything German in America except the damnable (I use the term without reserve) system that is directly responsible for the world's greatest war? Do the narrow nationalistic principles laid down by the Security League and allied organizations conform with the idea that this war is a fight to end war, so far as this is humanly possible?

Can any advocate of universal military training tell why America should adopt the system now? Certainly not to win this war, for whether we adopt it now or not, we are compelled to finish the present struggle under the selective service law and other measures adopted in the past eighteen months. On the other hand, its adoption in the present crisis would have a decided mark of insincerity, which no thinking person can overlook. Why adopt Prussianism by our own volition? If the policy of might should happen to come out victorious in this struggle, which humanity forbid, there is always time to adopt it in self-defence. Let us bend all our energies to winning this war and not waste our strength in laying plans for another.

One war at a time, gentlemen; one war at a time.

W. C. F.

St. Charles, Mo., June 16

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BOOKS

The Discoverer of the Antiseptic Method

Lord Lister. By Sir Rickman John Godlee. New York: The Macmillan Company. $6 net.

THE biography of Lord Lister, by his nephew, Sir Rickman John Godlee, presents a record of value to two classes of readers: those interested in him as a man and those interested in him chiefly as a surgeon and investigator. As, however, Lister's life was not marked by many striking events aside from those which have influenced medicine, it is to the medical and scientific world that the volume has its greatest appeal. To the average individual Lister is known as a successful English surgeon, who first introduced into surgery what is now known as the antiseptic method. It is somewhat of a surprise, therefore, to find that from the outset of his surgical career he was an investigator of no mean ability in many fields of medicine. Thus we find him in the last of his student years engaged in histologic studies of the structure of the muscular tissue of the iris and of the involuntary muscle fibres of the skin. These, resulting in his first publication in 1853, were, it is true, but confirmations of early observations by the German histologist, Kölliker, but they illustrate the tendency of Lister, evident throughout his life, to interest himself in all advances in the science of medicine. At this time also he was active in the experimental study of digestion and absorption and within a few years began those studies of the "early stages of inflammation" which led later to his investigation of the clotting of blood and were undoubtedly responsible for the point of view which led to the elaboration of the principles of the antiseptic method. His research activities are evident throughout the early period in Edinburgh and Glasgow (1852–65), which includes also active duties as surgeon and lecturer, his marriage, and incidentally a European tour. During this period Lister never lost touch with the scientific side of medicine and made many friends, especially on the continent, among the leaders in the science of his profession. At the same time, he did not neglect the practical aspects of his work, and as assistant to Syme, his father-in-law, in Edinburgh, and as professor of surgery in Glasgow, with the great wealth of clinical material of the Royal Infirmary, he made contributions to methods of amputation, the administration of anæsthetics, and improvements in surgical instruments and technic.

His interest in technical surgical studies, however, was always subordinate to the general problems of inflammation and suppuration, and in his letters of 1864 appear references to what must have been constantly in his mind —the need of improvements in the technic of surgery, necessary to prevent the conditions of infection and necrosis. Lister, like all true students of surgery, was burdened with the thought that, however perfect might be the technical art of surgery, the result was always a lottery. The element of chance was that of infection—now thoroughly understood, but then, in the absence of a knowledge of the relation of bacteria to inflammation, a thing mysterious and inexplicable. Lister found the answer to the riddle in 1865, but it was nearly twenty years before his views were universally accepted. To understand the importance of his discovery, a word is necessary concerning the complications—suppuration, erysipelas, septicemia, pyemia, and hospital gangrene—with which the surgeon was confronted as a possible sequence of every operation. These diseases were so much more common in the surgical wards of a hospital than they were outside the hospital that they were known as "hospital" diseases. Suppuration occurred in practically every surgical wound and was taken as a matter of course unless it extended widely or involved deeper parts; pyemia (secondary abscess due to infection of the blood stream, involving distant and deep-seated organs and essentially fatal in outcome) was the despair of every surgeon, as was hospital gangrene, a frequent lesion at site of operation and amenable to no treatment whatever. It was these conditions which limited the field of surgery practically to operations on the surface of the body. The cavities of the body were entered only in cases of dire necessity and always with dread and apprehension. This is shown in the small number of operations done in the time of Lister. Thus in the Glasgow Royal Infirmary, where Lister worked, there were in 1865 about 400 beds, representing 310 operations; in 1913, with 665 beds, the operations numbered 7,093. The difference in figures is not due to an increase of disease amenable to treatment by surgical means, but to Lister's improvement in surgical methods and the introduction of the antiseptic method. In Lister's time abdominal surgery was hardly thought of; the pleural cavity was entered for practically one condition only, to release an accumulation of pus; the brain and spinal cord were surgically unexplored regions.

This hesitant attitude of surgery was due to the almost constant occurrence of sepsis; in other words, the inflammation caused by bacteria deterred all surgical progress. Lister and his colleagues did not know that bacteria caused these septic conditions, and still less did they suppose they could be prevented. To demonstrate the latter was Lister's privilege, and as a result erysipelas and pyemia are rarities in the surgical ward. The modern surgeon does not know what "hospital" gangrene is; and when suppuration follows a surgical incision through unbroken skin, the surgeon knows that there has been some "break" in his technic.

The details of Lister's progress in solving the mysteries of infection cannot be given here. Starting with the general knowledge common to all surgeons that infection was favored by dirt, overcrowding, and lack of fresh air, he found, as had others, that cleaner wards, more cubic air space, and the observance of a general order of cleanliness did not appreciably influence the spread of infection. Even in a new hospital building infection was soon as prevalent as in the old building it replaced. That the surgeon himself was carrying the infection on his own hands and by instruments he used did not occur to any one at that time. Pictures, curtains, and other dirt-collecting articles were everywhere in evidence, and the surgeon saw no impropriety in going directly from the performance of an autopsy to assist, with but superficial cleansing of the hands, at an operation or dressing of an accidental wound. The surgeons of our Civil War period—unconscious of the world of bacteria and their importance in infection—were providing the best possible means of transmitting the so-called hospital diseases.

It was in 1865 that Lister, having reached the conclusion that wound infections were set up in some way by the air—but not by the gases of which air is composed—learned from Pasteur's writings that the latter viewed putrefaction as a

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fermentation, due to micro-organisms in the air, and that the air could be freed of the organisms by filtration, heat, and other means, and that sterilized substances in contact with air so purified did not ferment (putrefy). And here comes in that rare combination of chance and the prepared mind. Lister had always regarded putrefaction in a wound as essential to suppuration. Pasteur's work showed him that the micro-organisms in the air were the cause of infection. The air was only the vehicle to carry the micro-organism to the fresh wound. The solution of the problem, therefore, was not to treat a wound with an antiseptic, *after* the wound had become infected, but to prevent from the first incision the access of bacteria to the wound. Lister's first efforts were with carbolic dressings and the carbolic spray. This was along the line of his theory of killing bacteria in the air about the site of operation. The spray was abandoned later, but the truth had been demonstrated, and soon it was made known that not only bacteria in the air, but bacteria on the hands of the operator, on the instruments, the dressings, on anything coming in contact with the wound, and on the skin of the patient at the site of the operation were concerned in infection, and when all this was clearly recognized, the aseptic method became the essential feature of surgical technic, and the field of surgery immeasurably broadened. The appreciation of Lister's work came slowly, and complete acceptance probably corresponds to the year 1883, when he was made a baronet. Of historical and human interest in this connection is the mutual appreciation of Pasteur and Lister. In 1874 we find Lister offering Pasteur "most cordial thanks for having demonstrated to me the germ theory of putrefaction, and thus furnished me with the principle upon which alone the antiseptic treatment can be carried out" and in the same year Pasteur referring to Lister's "marvellous surgical methods" and recommending them to the surgeons of Paris.

The benefits of antisepsis are now so familiar to us, and its use is so much a matter of routine, that we cease to wonder at the revolution it brought about in surgery. Antisepsis shares with anæsthesia, as its discoverer, Lister, shares with Morton, Warren, and Simpson, the honor of the great advances surgery has made in the treatment of disease and injuries of the abdomen, thorax, and cranial cavity.

It is not to be supposed that Lister's life work ended with this period. His biographer gives the details of his successive progress as a teacher of surgery, a public-spirited citizen, an honored traveller in various parts of the world, a member of the House of Lords, and the recipient of every possible honor; but to the world at large his great period was that in which he solved the mystery of surgical infection and thereby made humanity his debtor; to the student of the progress of medicine he offers the splendid example of the man who is prepared to grasp the significance of a scientific theory or experiment, and by applying it to his own field revolutionizes the practice of his art.

Contributors to this Issue

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A Lover of Life

Life and Letters of Stopford Brooke. By Lawrence Pearsall Jacks. Two volumes. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons. $4.75 net.

WHEN Stopford Brooke died two years ago at the age of eighty-three, another of the dwindling strands that bind us to the nineteenth century was snapped. For Brooke, though he did not fill the stage of his time, was nevertheless strikingly full of his time; from the days of "In Memoriam" and "Darwinism" to the Great War, he was sensitive to it all. Receptive rather than creative, his eager mind—"I have always loved eagerness," he wrote at the close of his life—reached out in many directions in its unceasing search for the beautiful, thrusting its way into literature, science, and painting, revelling in natural scenery, rejoicing in people. A sort of gentle, whimsical mysticism he had, which got its satisfying vision in the simple, known things of life. This extreme diffusion of himself, his extreme tolerance and broad sympathy, kept him from concentrating his energies on the somewhat sullen task of hewing out a career, kept him even as a critic from rising above the rank of genial expositor. He was a fighter against formulas of all kinds. But he was a stimulating teacher and to many a consoling presence. He himself is more than all his writings. "Je sens fortement l'existence" was a phrase that he caught from his wife; but in him the whole thing is saved from æstheticism by his enormous capacity for work and for joyous holidays, and by the atmosphere of sound sense and good cigars which goes everywhere with him. Those who know chiefly the "Primer of English Literature" and the rest hardly know him at all.

Very happily, it is the man that forms the principal subject of the biography before us. It is proper that it should be so, for Professor Jacks is husband of one of the daughters who grew up in the motherless, but singularly beautiful, home in Manchester Square, around which so much of the story revolves. Several glimpses of Brooke come with special clearness: "a strapper," as the old woman called him, walking between his equally handsome brothers on Kingston pier; his voice booming above the hum of a London drawing-room, "We must have more joy in life!" and the old man, leaning over the garden pool at "The Four Winds," the country house which he had the courage to build and the strength heartily to enjoy at the age of seventy-nine.

With skilfully interwoven comment, the diaries and letters are made to tell pretty much the whole story: the London curacies, the brief chaplaincies at Berlin and at the Royal Chapel at Windsor in the sixties; his long and brilliant career as a preacher in his proprietary chapels, in which his unobtrusive departure from the Church in the eighties made so little difference; his lecturing and his incessant reading. There are in the letters good bits of literary reminiscence of Henry James and of Morris; shrewd criticisms of George Eliot and of Matthew Arnold. Of Kingsley he writes: "All his books scream. If he tells you it is five o'clock, it seems as if it were the last hour of the world." There is a timely interest, too, in his frequently expressed notion that the German people, whom he had learned to know in Berlin, were going to be able to absorb the benefits of autocracy and soon rid themselves of its evils. If the plan of making him tutor to the young prince who is now William II had gone through, the course of history might have been different.

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Contemporary History

National Progress, 1907–1917. By Frederic A. Ogg. (The American Nation, Vol. 27.) New York: Harper & Brothers. $2 net.

ANYONE who wants a comprehensive and well-arranged summary of the leading events in American history during the past decade will find it in the readable volume which Professor Ogg has just added to the "American Nation" series. Herein is told, carefully and systematically, the story of the revolt against the Republican party, the overthrow of Cannonism, the disintegrating Progressive movement, the growth of popular political control in the States, the achievement of tariff and currency reform, the spread of woman suffrage, the attempts at curbing Trusts and preventing strikes, and the parti-colored course of foreign relations. As in the other volumes of the series to which the book belongs, there is frequent citation of authorities in footnotes, and a bibliographical chapter which classifies and appraises a long list of sources and secondary works. At all of these points Professor Ogg has done his work well, and the volume easily takes its place in the small number of handbooks of contemporary history which the student and teacher will find indispensable.

The impression which the events themselves convey, however, when set down in this concise and orderly fashion, is less satisfying. Perhaps it is asking too much of an historian that he shall make the Presidential career of Mr. Wilson consistent, especially when that career itself is still unfolding. Professor Ogg's straightforward narrative, however, compressed at times to the point of bareness, not only serves to bring out some of Mr. Wilson's most glaring inconsistencies, but leaves as well an uncomfortable impression that the President at times has not known his own mind, and at other times has displayed only superficial reflection or knowledge. If, for example, there was, or now is, a consistent purpose back of President Wilson's dealings with Mexico, or if there is evidence that the Adamson Railway law was a well-considered part of a matured programme of railway or labor policy, the proof is hard to find in Professor Ogg's pages. It is equally difficult to reconcile the irritating relations of the United States with Central and South America, or the essentially imperialistic advance in the Caribbean, with the democratic doctrines and aspirations which President Wilson is so apt in phrasing; while if the ultimate entrance of the United States into the European war, even as a dread necessity, was at all clearly foreseen, the steps which were taken on behalf of military preparedness were curiously inadequate. From the guarded reflections which Professor Ogg lets drop here and there, one suspects that he himself feels that he is writing of policies which it is hard to reconcile; but whether this be so or not, one nevertheless closes the book with an uncomfortable feeling that, if this is the whole story, Mr. Wilson, down to a year ago, was not a great man, but an enigmatical personality under whose uncertain leadership the United States, driven into strange paths, contrived to muddle through.

That such should be the impression is largely due, we venture to think, to the strict limitations of space and arrangement which the plan of the "American Nation" series imposes. There is no opportunity for broad treatment of large historical movements. But the history of the United States, during the past decade, has gone forward on a large scale. Back of President Wilson and his immediate predecessors lies a great social revolution which, for twenty years, has been making a new America. Its characteristics are not to be found, save in small or incidental ways, in the struggles of political parties in Presidential elections, or in the legislation of Congress, or in the shifting decisions of the courts, but rather in the emergence of new ideals of labor and industrial control, the effort to realize new standards of living, and the vast spread among the masses of new political theories and social aspirations. Mr. Roosevelt perceived the revolution and gave it impetus, but he could neither coördinate nor control it. Mr. Taft perceived it only to withstand it, and was overwhelmed. Mr. Wilson has formulated some of its ethical precepts and guardedly made himself its spokesman, at the same time that he has been, apparently, almost as much its creature as its leader. It is this profound social transformation of which, for obvious and entirely creditable reasons, we get only fragmentary glimpses in Professor Ogg's book. Happily, however, they are all glimpses which will make the thoughtful reader ponder.

The Social Gospel

A Theology for the Social Gospel. By Walter Rauschenbusch. New York: The Macmillan Company. $1.50 net.

"THIS book had to be written some time," says Professor Rauschenbusch, "and as far as I know, nobody has yet written it." Back of that sentence lies much recent religious history. Not infrequently of late years theologians have violently reproached the men who were working out the social application of Christianity with not recognizing the theological implications and content of their activity. On occasion, some theologians have even demanded that practical men should add to their task the burden of working out the theological aspects of the social interpretation of the Gospel. Some significant excursions have been made into this field, notably by W. D. Hyde in "Outlines of Social Theology," H. C. King in "Theology and the Social Consciousness," and G. B. Smith in "Social Idealism and the Changing Theology."

In general, however, the present condition of theological thinking, along with that of economic and political theory, is a striking demonstration of the way in which modes of thought persist long after changes of life. It is a long while after humanity has mended its manner of living that its reflective apparatus is adjusted to the transformation. The social interpretation of the Gospel has for some years been profoundly affecting the practical activities of the church, in missions, education, and evangelism. It is inevitable that it should also develop a restatement of theology. It is both significant and natural that the first formal attempt in this field should be made not by a theologian, but by a church historian. It is a matter of congratulation for American Protestantism that this work should have been done by the one man who had done more than any other to change its thought in the present generation. This is an advantage which more than overcomes the limitation due to the fact that this is not the special field of the labors of Mr. Rauschenbusch. With characteristic modesty he says, "I offer my attempt until some other man comes along who can plough deeper and straighter." The turning of this untilled soil adds to the heavy debt which modern Christianity already owes this man.

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The purpose of this volume is adaptation rather than innovation. Its field is limited to the development of the social content of certain of the fundamental doctrines of Christianity. Its purpose and result are thoroughly constructive. Those militaristic religionists whose chief sport is heresy hunting, who have hurled the fury of their assaults upon Mr. Rauschenbusch because his earlier work assumed the results of historical criticism, will doubtless, if they should read that far, be astonished to find him saying concerning the doctrine of original sin, "Many modern theologians are ready to abandon this doctrine, and among laymen it seems to carry so little sense of reality that audiences often smile at its mention. I take pleasure, therefore, in defending it." They have forgotten, if they ever knew, that this man teaches history, and therefore necessarily he would say, "I have entire sympathy with the conservative instinct which shrinks from giving up any of the dear possessions which have made life holy for us. We have none too much of them left. It is a comfort to me to know that the changes required to make room for the social Gospel are not destructive, but constructive. They involve addition and not subtraction." Here is an honest attempt to see if the old bottles will hold the new wine. This is the limitation of the work. If the old skins burst, then the next task is to make some new ones. What, for example, is the development of democracy going to do to our conception of God?

The most significant contribution that the social movement has to make to theological thought is its demand that religious thinking become scientific, not simply speculative. The modern theologian who keeps abreast of the investigations of social science does not have to write allegories concerning the fall of man, to explain the origin and development of evil. Mr. Rauschenbusch has a most illuminating discussion of this point, in which he challenges theology to reckon with the social as well as the biological transmission of evil. Of course, the social scientist can be and has been just as dogmatic as the theologian. The scientific method offers no complete explanation of life. There is still the unknown, before which science becomes increasingly reverent; but by the rigorous use of the scientific method theology will continually lessen the unknown and have a much better chance of understanding its nature. Mr. Rauschenbusch has made a vital contribution to the discussion of the Atonement by his emphasis on the social and racial solidarity of sin. He points out that the great sins behind the crucifixion of Jesus are still powerful in modern life. He indicates how much more difficult a task is reconciliation than punishment, how inadequate is retribution alone. The present world situation faces humanity with this problem, how to satisfy justice and at the same time express love. For that situation there is a vital meaning in the Atonement.

The intelligent layman will probably recognize his debt for this book more quickly than many a preacher. There has been little theological preaching in the pulpit because traditional theology lacked context and contact in modern life. But the present world revolution is creating a universal demand for a discussion of the fundamental truths of God, man, suffering, sin, and the way out. The days of reconstruction will demand something more than pious rhetoric. It is a day for the prophet. "The day of prophetic and democratic Christianity has just begun. This concerns the social Gospel. For the social Gospel is the voice of prophecy in modern life."

Our New Islands

The Virgin Islands. Our New Possessions and the British Islands. By Theodoor De Booy and John T. Faris. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Company. $3 net.

AN authoritative book on the Virgin Islands, which mark another step in the colonial development of the United States, has plainly been needed, and this imposing volume of Messrs. De Booy and Faris on the whole fills the bill. Not that the style is particularly interesting or that the quaintness and beauty of these islands have been pictured with the charm with which a Lafcadio Hearn would have portrayed them. But the facts seem to be all here, with a plain tale of the history of the islands, and there is a most useful chapter of hints to the traveller as to how he should dress and what he should take with him. Mr. De Booy adds considerable lore acquired by him in the course of the archæological survey of the three American islands conducted for the Museum of the American Indian. The book will prove serviceable to the growing number of persons who want information concerning our newest possessions.

When it comes to the political side, the volume is distinctly disappointing. The authors are plainly imperialists, and as such they rejoice at our costly purchase of a grave governmental and race problem in these unprosperous islands. They want us, moreover, to continue in the same path and to purchase the Dutch islands so that "a chain of defences" can be thrown around the Panama Canal—which ought, of course, not to be fortified, but, if this war to end war is a success, should be immediately thrown open to all the world under international guarantees. Plainly, the authors take no stock in President Wilson's peace terms, for they talk about our having a great fleet stationed at St. Thomas and Culebra Islands to "give battle to any squadron that should try to force its way through the Mona Passage," etc., etc.—the same old jargon which has brought the world to its present low estate. It goes without saying that the authors touch not at all upon the effects upon South America of this new purchase of ours—legitimate, of course—in connection with our lack of success in governing Porto Rico wisely, our dubious record in Hayti, San Domingo, Nicaragua, and now apparently in Costa Rica. We are by no means as much concerned about the rights and independence of small nationalities in the Caribbean as we have been about those of Belgium. The authors also fail to touch upon the recent report of a sub-committee of the House Naval Affairs Committee, which, according to press reports, declares that there are no harbors in the Virgin Islands worth fortifying or developing—thus suggesting the query whether even from the imperialistic point of view we have not bought a pig in a poke.

Economic and governmental proposals Messrs. De Booy and Faris have few to make. They hope to see a winter tourist trade develop, particularly on St. Croix because of its wonderful climate, but the grave danger from the periodical hurricanes of terrific force will doubtless be a serious obstacle to this. At present the islands are governed by a naval officer, and any plans for development must be deferred until the end of the war. Then our chaotic policy in our various possessions must be clarified and crystallized lest we have to look back upon our colonial record a few decades hence with the remorse all honest people feel who study our record in dealing with our Indians.

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Substance and Mechanism

Christopher Quarles: College Professor and Master Detective. By Percy James Brebner. New York: E. P. Dutton & Company.

The Unseen Hand. By Clarence Herbert New. New York: Doubleday, Page & Company.

Captain Gault. By Ralph Hope Hodgson. New York: Robert M. McBride & Company.

The Audacious Adventures of Miles McConaughy: An Epic of the Merchant Marine. By Arthur D. Howden Smith. New York: George H. Doran Company.

The Standard-Bearers: True Stories of Heroes of Law and Order. By Katherine Mayo. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company.

MORE than a quarter-century has slipped by since Sherlock Holmes usurped the scene in detective fiction. New writers still have to be careful, above all not to offend us with pseudo-Sherlocks. We demand something "distinctively different" in make-up and method. Young girls, beautiful society women, lusty athletes, doddering ancients—from any source sufficiently unsherlockian our fresh masters of detection may arise. One ingenious contriver (in "The Lost Naval Papers" of Bennet Copplestone) has gone so far as to wrench a genius out of Scotland Yard itself! Now, "Christopher Quarles, College Professor and Master Detective," bears evidence of novelty on its very title-page. It is true that old gentleman's professorial status is left rather vague; from beginning to end, indeed, we lack data as to what or where he professes. Luckily for us, at all events, he has plenty of leisure for our business. His Doctor Watson (alas! these analogies seem inevitable) is a professional detective who works somewhat according to the Holmes formula. Not so Quarles; his method rests, to put it vulgarly, on "the hunch." Wigan, the chronicler, a professional detective, follows the sacred rules of induction—or was it deduction? Quarles depends frankly on intuition. "My methods are not those of a detective," he admits. "You argue from facts; I am more inclined to form a theory, and then look for facts to fit it." And in forming his theory he is moved by hints often hardly tangible. He does, to be sure, make suspicious use now and then of Baker Street ways—the worship of cigarette ends and the stowing away in envelopes of bits of fluff and refuse gathered on "the premises." But these are secondary matters. His genius lies in jumping at conclusions—commonly from the take-off of some apparently casual question of his granddaughter Zena, whose middle name (in the current idiom) is Hunch. There is a certain monotony in the working out of these tales, each of which really ends at the point when Quarles has perfected his theory; after that we merely follow the facts for verification. Their machinery apart, the stories have more novelty and ingenuity than we can often look for in this much-worked field. "The Unseen Hand," while it has more the form of a novel (the Quarles yarns have their thread of "heart-interest," at least) is in effect a series of linked episodes in the present fashion. Here our narrator is an American sleuth-journalist. Our theme is the mystery of the "diplomatic Free Lance," whose distinction it is to have "intervened—not once but fifty times since 1914—to save England from disaster, and, in so doing, unquestionably preserved the structure of modern civilization." This useful person turns out (rather too early in the game) to be a well-known English lord, who is really an impostor, but under any name a most ingenious and accomplished fellow. Unhappily, the whole affair is too elaborate and artificial—or rather its elaboration and artificiality are insufficiently concealed even for our complaisance as patrons of this sort of performance. It is said that people who make a habit of the fiction of crime and mystery are indifferent to questions of "literary" quality. In that fiction, no doubt, one finds a mechanical romance nearly independent of the graces and accessories one demands in other types of fiction. Is it a really new thing? Does it deserve a patent? Is it at any rate a fresh contrivance or combination of old devices? These are the questions the expert reader of detective stories asks himself. But he is not precisely (or always) a fool; and it is surely better, other things being equal, to keep the structure sound and the wires hidden.

"Captain Gault" and "The Audacious Adventures of Miles McConaughy" are other books of serial adventure with a single central figure to focus the interest. Captain Gault is a light-hearted rascal in a strange berth—a full-fledged master of steamships in the transatlantic service. To make a smuggler, swaggerer, and grafter out of such a personage is like making a highwayman out of a bishop. Gault, to be sure is rather a drifter—passenger ship, freighter, or tramp being all the same to him if there is enough of a game on. His reputation is none too clean, and we cannot help fancying that in the flesh he would have some difficulty in finding any sort of responsible job afloat. However, nothing is ever brought home to him. He goes his primrose path with delightful impunity. His special joy is to cheat and flout the customs authorities. He is a pleasant and sufficiently plausible absurdity for an idle reader to deal with for an hour. Miles McConaughy might be more amusing if he were handled with equal lightness of touch. He is a different sort of skipper; a captain in the English Merchant Marine, and a doughty adventurer, but of quixotic honesty. His feats run from capturing a German submarine to salvaging a wrecked steamer under shellfire. He is a sort of pious privateer, owning a faithful band of psalm-singing henchmen without whom he will man no ship. The substance of their achievements is ingenious and amusing. But the author has too heavy a hand; more especially, he is too fond of dialect and too determined to be humorous. McConaughy is an Ulsterman, Grant, his first officer, a Scotchman, and Apgar, his chief engineer, a Welshman; so that with the South Irish and Cockneys and stage-Johnnies who act as foils, these pages are sadly littered with apostrophes and vowels and consonants among which, we suspect, the adventure-loving reader will hesitate to adventure.

Of very different character is our remaining volume. The stories are to be placed as fiction by their treatment, and are full enough of adventure in all conscience. But their matter parts them widely from the books of conventional entertainment we have been glancing at. "The Standard-Bearers" has an unusual history. The author, a New Yorker, roused by the helplessness of country districts in her own State to prevent or punish crime, made a study of the one body in this country which had adequately dealt with such conditions—the Pennsylvania State Police. She wrote a book, "Justice to All," describing the work of that body. In this later volume she presents a group of stories, founded closely on fact, of special feats by some of the members of that now famous force in its early years.

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Notes

THE publication of the fine volume, "L Annæi Senecæ ad Lucilium Epistularum Moralium Libros I-XIII ad Codicem præcipue Quirinianum recensuit Achilles Beltrami. Brixiæ Typis F. Apollonii et S. MCMXVI," written and printed at Brescia in the Italian war zone, affords a welcome proof that the conflict of the nations has not driven liberal studies entirely from the thoughts of men. Signor Beltrami is professor of the Latin language and literature at the University of Genoa and is a native of Brescia. In his researches in the Quirinian Library of this city he has been so fortunate as to find, and so intrepid as to study and edit amid the sights and sounds of war, a manuscript of Seneca's "Ad Lucilium Epistulæ Morales," remarkable for its antiquity and beauty. He attributes it to a period not later than the tenth century, an opinion which is shared by a number of his Italian colleagues. A few facsimile pages are printed in the volume which quite bear out the editor's assertions in regard to its beauty and interest. Only it seems a bit strange that a manuscript of not later than the tenth century should have so few abbreviations. The editor considers, on palæographical and other evidence, that the manuscript is nearly related to the Codex Vat. Lat. 5775. Of the older manuscripts of the "Epistulæ ad Lucilium," some contain Books I–XIII, the others Books XIV–XX, but none the whole twenty that have come down to us. The Quirinianus belongs to the former class. Professor Beltrami's edition, therefore, gives only Books I-XIII and is a collation of this manuscript with reference to Hense's edition. The variants thus brought to light are numerous and of great importance for the constitution of the text. The edition consists of a critical preface of forty-five pages, the text with critical notes, and an index of the variants from Hense's edition. As becomes so excellent a work, also, its mechanical execution, both as to paper and printing, is highly to be praised. Speaking of a Strasburg manuscript of Seneca, the editor remarks (p. ix): "Cum Fickerti editione a Buechlero conlatus est, sed urbis postea a Germanis obsessæ incendio absumptus periit." Of how many precious manuscripts may the same be said at the end of the present war?

IN "Les Doctrines Médiévales chez Donne, le Poète Metaphysicien de l'Angleterre, 1573–1631" (Oxford University Press; $3), a thesis written for the "doctorat de l'université" at Paris, Miss Mary Paton Ramsay undertakes a study of Donne's erudition, chiefly as it appears in his prose works. The thesis develops an important point: the close connection of Donne and many of his contemporaries with mediæval thought. His often noted fondness for the fathers and the schoolmen is not a mere personal whim; it is shared by Hooker and others of his time; and to Donne himself the language of the schools is the natural vehicle, the allegorical the natural method, for dealing with such mediæval questions as the origin of the world, the nature of the angels, and man's triple soul. His reading in the mediæval authorities, of which Miss Ramsay draws up instructive lists, was comprehensive. With the mediæval scheme of things he is entirely satisfied. Miss Ramsay's discussion is a little one-sided. Donne did respond vigorously to classical influences; he is the first to domesticate formal satire in English, and the epigrammatic terseness of Martial, as well as the Anacreontic note, is apparent in him. But a case might be made out that Donne's peculiar "metaphysical" manner, which set a style of recommending the poet's teaching by sheer verbal ingenuity, rather than by luxuriant beauty in the Renaissance manner, is chiefly due to his devoted study of the schoolmen and mystics of the Middle Ages.

IN "The Life and Letters of Thomas Hodgkin" (Longmans, Green; $4.50 net) there is the well-told record of such a career as could scarcely be paralleled outside of England. Here was a man who, born to a mere competence, made a considerable fortune as a banker. As a youth he suffered from ill health, but, overcoming his physical disabilities, he lived to the ripe age of eighty-two. Despite his labors at the bank—until the very end he used to make out the annual trial balance with his own hands—he found time to compose a history which required elaborate documentary research, his "Italy and Her Invaders," in eight volumes, which was recognized by scholars as a work of minute erudition. Besides this *magnum opus*, he wrote other books and contributed voluminously to the magazines. He was a constant lecturer. As a Quaker he took an important place in the councils of that body, and when nearly eighty travelled to Australia and New Zealand in its interests. He was actively engaged in politics and educational matters. With all this he found time to share the life of his wife and children, and seems never to have been pressed by engagements or hurried by distractions. Such a career, with its fulness of unconflicting interests, is a mystery; and it would almost be an impossibility in any other country than England. Though not of imaginative genius, Hodgkin's mind in smaller matters was fertile and ingenious, and his letters carry well in print. The work of the compiler and narrator, Miss Louise Creighton, has been well done, and altogether the biography (which is confined to one volume with a restraint not common in these days) is one to read and enjoy.

THE romantic exploits of Francisco de Quevedo, largely legendary though they be, have inspired many novels and dramas. Quevedo, equally formidable with tongue, pen, and sword, is to Spain what d'Artagnan and Cyrano de Bergerac are to France. The most celebrated play on this subject is that of Florentino Sanz, "Don Francisco de Quevedo." Mr. R. Selden Rose, well known for his studies on Quevedo and Suárez de Figeroa, has edited this play for classroom use (Ginn; 80 cents net). This workmanlike edition of an interesting work is very welcome.

THE volume, "The France of To-day," by Barrett Wendell (Scribner; $1 net), based upon lectures given by the author in 1904–5 on the Hyde Foundation at the Sorbonne and other French universities, has been reprinted several times since the beginning of the war, and had been reprinted frequently before. The book contains impressions of some ten years ago, and while changes were afterwards made, the contemporary air which it seems to possess refers actually to the France of the abrogation of the Concordat and the Religious Associations law. The manner of writing is clever and facile rather than profound, so that even when the author is discussing the largest and most difficult questions, one has the impression that, while the treatment is seemingly philosophic, it does not actually go below the surface of things. There is certainly much instructive infor-

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mation about the French people and the peculiarities of their character and life: the author lived for a while among them and had excellent opportunities to grow acquainted with them. Evidently he observed with care, and was much helped in his interpretations by Frenchmen themselves. But we should not suppose that he had known the French intimately for a great while and grown up with them, as it were. Those portions of the book have most merit which concern what the author himself came to know. He notes a number of errors in his chapter about the French universities, yet it is the best in the book, and one of the most useful accounts of which we know. The chapters on the structure of society, the nobility, the *bourgeoisie*, and family life are excellent. The author insists at considerable length that there is in the French family a beauty of devotion and intensity of affection nowhere exceeded. He explains that while with us the unit of organization is rather the individual, in France it is the family group, so that about the *foyer* there is something less of individual privacy and personal right, these being subordinated to well-recognized obligations in respect of family organization. The chapter on the French temperament is informing, and one about the relation of literature to life contains some ingenious speculations. The later chapters, on the religious question, the Revolution and its consequences, and the present republic, are less satisfactory. Notwithstanding a certain verbal clearness, it is not always easy to follow the author's thought. The book has doubtless been very useful and will continue to be so to those who know little about France and desire to know more.

IN December, 1916, some twenty prominent citizens of Pennsylvania asked the family of the late Samuel W. Pennypacker to publish his autobiography just as it came from his hand, "unaltered, unexpurgated, and unedited." A substantial volume, "The Autobiography of a Pennsylvanian" (Winston; $3 net), is the result. We are assured by the publishers that "whatever or whoever may be maimed, the book goes forth as it was written." A judicious wielding of the blue-pencil would have made the record more modest, but infinitely less characteristic. For the Governor was in his day a picturesque figure who did things in a way distinctly his own, and not infrequently his utterances had in them a dash of egotism. He was able, shrewd, independent, opinionated, and withal a gentleman. He just missed being a national figure. The story of his life will therefore have more than a local interest. He handles men and measures without gloves, and the political historian will find something of value in the autobiography. The methods of Penrose, Quay, and others are to some extent illuminated. There are many apt characterizations, and not a few that are too severe; for example, he deals altogether too harshly with President Wilson. His chief concern was for his public career. Six chapters are devoted to his judicial labors and to his four-year term as Governor of Pennsylvania. Those who admired Governor Pennypacker for his scholarly attainments will be disappointed to find that side of his life but inadequately treated. We should like to know more of the avocations which throughout his full life he cultivated so assiduously. We are told that he gathered a remarkable library of some 12,000 volumes (many of them rare imprints), and that he disposed of all but two or three thousand items while still Governor. The autobiography is written without distinction, but with the clarity and force for which the Governor was noted.

A TIMELY contribution to the literature of a burning subject is Jan J. Kowalczk's booklet on "Prussian Poland" (Copenhagen: Egmont H. Petersen). Though written in somewhat halting English, it is lucid and conveys information on the obscurer aspects of the Polish question. Not every newspaper reader knows that the German official census, in order to prove its point that there are but 100,000 Poles in the district of Danzig, classes an equal number of Kassubs as "bilingual," the fact being that the Kassubs, like the Masurs, are Poles pure and simple. But Prussia has far greater sins to answer for in her treatment of her Polish subjects, and that these mean to seize their opportunity and cannot be held in check even by the iron hand of their master of to-day is shown by the veiled declaration of Polish independence made by the vice-president of the Polish Club in the German Reichstag last August. But while the Poles of Galicia and Russian Poland, unrestricted in their language, find ample encouragement among the liberal classes, those of Prussia look vainly for support in German circles of whatever shade of political opinion. Even Prof. Hans Delbrück, before the war unsparing in his denunciation of Prussian mismanagement of the Polish problem, now sees only "complications and formidable conflicts" ahead if Posen and Danzig were to become part of an independent Poland. It may be broadly stated, in spite of the official adhesion of Emperor William to the plan of a resurrected Poland, that Germany does not recognize the existence of a Polish problem. Not one of the leading German parties dreams of doing justice to Poland; only the radical labor-union wing of the Social Democrats has spoken for her.

MRS. MABEL POTTER DAGGETT'S title, "Women Wanted" (Doran; $1.50 net), is self-descriptive when you add the corollary, "but they didn't use to be." This volume, though marred by an incessant and insistent journalistic style, gives the most illuminating account that we have yet seen of the significance of the effect of war upon the woman movement. The author is optimistic; she is completely and quite reasonably feminist. She sees in woman's entrance into factory work, for instance, nothing but a blessing. Though she seems to have studied the English reports on the effect of night work and overwork, we wonder if she has fully grasped the problems relating to health and to child life that this wholesale enlisting of woman power has given rise to. The enlistment is a cause for optimism—let there be no doubt—but the less those problems are glossed over now, the brighter the future for woman's permanent and legitimate freedom in industry. It is not only into industry, but into medicine, law, commerce, and lastly politics, that woman has made her way. In England "there are 73,000 more of them in Government offices. . . . And no less than 42,000 more women have replaced men in finance and banking. One of London's greatest banks, the London, City and Midland, has among 3,000 employees 2,600 women." Mrs. Daggett does not miss the irony of the right-about-face of the British male public, which, as soon as woman was needed, declared her competent; nor of the fact that Lloyd George to-day has as his chauffeur a girl who was a celebrated hunger-striker before the war; and that a certain doctor, whom the Government had in jail for six weeks, has now been put in command of a war hospital with the rank of major. Examples are multiplied in her pages. She went to England and France in

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1916 to collect the data and interview many of the more famous women who have found their opportunity for work and service since 1914. Not least among them we like Mrs. Webber, ex-charwoman, now factory worker, because Mrs. Webber's commentary on the situation, after all, points to the most human and the most common sentiment. "A shilling of your own is worth two that 'e gives you," she said.

EDWARD CLODD has written and Edward Clode has published a book entitled "The Question." The question is, "If a man die, shall he live again?" Mr. Clodd doesn't know what the answer is, but then Sir Oliver Lodge doesn't either. Hence the book. Its thesis and conclusion is that "there has been no advance in ideas of the soul, and no advance in knowledge of the conditions of existence in any after life, from the dawn of thought to the present day. Spiritualism is the old animism writ large." The proof of this thesis is twofold: first, emphasis upon certain features of "spiritualism" which are to some extent parallel to animistic phenomena; and second, a steady flow of ridicule poured upon psychical research and psychical researchers. Mr. Clodd plainly had great fun in writing his book, but it is to be hoped that he did not expect any one to take it seriously. Certainly no conclusive evidence has been brought forward of what G. Stanley Hall, in characteristic phrase, calls the "post-mortem perduration of personality." Yet the investigation of a subject of such enormous human significance is worthy of what little encouragement it has as yet received from scientifically trained investigators, and the evidence thus far amassed, though inconclusive enough, is worthy at least of serious analysis. Mr. Clodd contents himself with an ironical exposition of some of the weaker cases and a laugh at all those who take a different view from his own.

AN important book, by Professor Robert Andrews Millikan, is the latest issue in the University of Chicago Science Series, "The Electron. Its Isolation and Measurement and the Determination of Some of its Properties" ($1.50 net). The author begins with an excellent review of the theories of the nature of electricity from the time of Franklin to the beginning of the twentieth century. With great skill he points out the crucial discoveries which have affected thought and which have brought us back almost exactly to Franklin's ideas. The middle section is devoted to a description of the experimental work of the Cavendish school to determine the electric charge. The author sketches this work rather briefly, since it is already quite accessible. He then gives in detail his own work by which he determined with the greatest accuracy the atomic quantity of electricity. The last two chapters are given to a discussion of Moseley's and Bohr's new work on the atom. The author has succeeded in writing a very interesting book. He has accomplished the difficult task of presenting an abstruse subject in such an untechnical manner that it will be read with pleasure not only by the physicist, but also by any one who has had a general scientific training.

"ELLIPTIC Integrals" (Wiley & Sons), by Professor Harris Hancock, is an excellent monograph on this rather neglected branch of mathematics. It is planned to meet the needs of students who wish to obtain a working knowledge of the subject without studying it exhaustively.

Art

The Restorer of "The Last Supper"

THE death in Italy of Professor Luigi Cavenaghi, of Milan, who enjoyed a world-wide reputation as a restorer of Italian pictures of the Renaissance period, has just been announced. Born in 1844, he first applied himself seriously to mastering the principles of the restorer's art under Giuseppe Molteni, who was at one time director of the Brera Gallery, of Milan, and well known for his ability in rehandling and cleaning old panels and canvases. Some fifteen years ago Professor Cavenaghi disclaimed the authenticity of the Minghetti Portrait of a Girl, which had been highly esteemed by Morelli and had been held by certain authorities to be the work of Leonardo da Vinci. Professor Cavenaghi contended that it was a modern work, probably at the hand of Tricca, a native of Borgo San Sepolcro, who about 1850 practiced as a painter and picture dealer in Florence. Some reference to these facts is to be found in the *Nation* of March 17, 1904, and it is fitting that its columns should contain a brief record of a few of the more notable achievements of one to whom the modern art world is deeply indebted.

It is, however, as the restorer of Leonardo da Vinci's large fresco of The Last Supper in the refectory of Santa Maria delle Grazie, in Milan, that Professor Cavenaghi is best known. When a commission was appointed ten years ago to consider the best means to adopt for cleaning that precious work, he was called upon to report on the course that should be followed to obtain the best and most permanent result. After laborious examination of the ill effects that had in time resulted from the unsafe methods employed by various individuals who in the past had been allowed to renovate the fresco, Professor Cavenaghi thought out a scheme whereby he might affix to the wall the fast crumbling pigment and preserve intact as much of the original painting as still survived, while removing the dirt and repaints that had for over a century impaired its beauty. During the execution of this highly responsible and arduous task, he arrived at certain conclusions that were contrary to those generally accepted. Moreover, he eventually discovered the existence, above the actual composition, of much decorative work, the existence of which had not even been suspected in modern times. Critics and connoisseurs alike have unanimously endorsed the wisdom and loving care which characterized Professor Cavenaghi's achievement.

A considerable number of Italian pictures now in this country were entrusted to him for restoration before being brought out here from Europe. Among them may be mentioned the Madonna by Verrocchio, which was in the collection of the late Charles Butler in London and now forms part of the Altman bequest to the Metropolitan Museum. Another example of his careful restoration is the St. Francis by Giovanni Bellini, which, after being lost to sight in a private collection near London for a quarter of a century, made its unexpected appearance at the Royal Academy's winter exhibition some seven years ago and was a year or so later acquired by Mr. H. C. Frick for his gallery. Other instances of Professor Cavenaghi's skilful restoration are to be met with in the large collection bequeathed by Mr. John G. Johnson to the city of Philadelphia.

MAURICE BROCKWELL

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Finance

The Railroad Contract

By R. L. BARNUM

IT was on December 28, or more than six months ago, that the Government took over the railroads. Why is it that the contract under which the carriers are to be operated during the war and for at least twenty-one months thereafter has not been signed? Why was it that the railway officials were not able to reach an agreement at the conference held only a few days ago?

In the widely published statements given out after that meeting, it appears that one faction raised three objections to signing the Government contract. First, it was pointed out that no provisions had been made for covering any loss which might result from disturbance to regular business. Next, objections were made to a clause in the contract which gave Director-General McAdoo power to order an individual company to increase its maintenance appropriations included in operating expenses for upkeep of roadbed and equipment. Finally, it was argued that a limit should be placed on the extent to which the Railroad Administration could force a company to make betterments.

Beyond question much can be said from the railway viewpoint to justify these objections. Taking them in turn, Erie, for example, affords a striking illustration of what is meant by losses resulting from disturbance to regular business. Before the Government assumed control last December, one of the Erie's best assets was its heavy westbound freight traffic. To-day that business has all but disappeared, while the westbound traffic of New York Central, Erie's strongest competitor prior to December 28, 1917, has increased enormously. In this diverting of traffic, A. H. Smith, now regional director of all Eastern roads, but formerly president of New York Central, undoubtedly is working to carry out the Government's ideas in taking over the railroads, that is, to prevent freight congestion and thereby greatly increase the facilities of the carriers. However, the fact is that Erie's westbound business has disappeared, and consequently there is a question as to whether some of it, at least, will ever return.

As to the second objection named, it was argued that with unlimited power to order increases in maintenance, Director-General McAdoo might so raise the operating expenses of an individual railway that, despite the Government's guarantee, payment of the usual dividends would be impossible. Finally, it was argued that before the contracts were signed an understanding should be reached as to the interest rate to be charged by the Government on money spent for war-time improvements and betterments ordered by the Director-General; also, that inasmuch as the war-time improvements and betterments might not be needed after peace has been declared, a limit be placed on the amount of such work to be charged against individual companies.

Before going further, it is necessary to review briefly the steps leading up to the existing situation. In issuing his proclamation last December, President Wilson started out by saying: "It has now become necessary in the national defence to take possession and assume control of certain systems of transportation and utilize the same, to the exclusion, as far as may be necessary, of other than war traffic thereon, for transportation of troops, war materials, and equipment, and for other needful and desirable purposes connected with the prosecution of the war." A few days later, on January 4, President Wilson appeared before Congress and asked that the Administration Railroad bill be passed. As a protection for the holders of both bonds and stocks, Congress was asked to see to it that throughout the period of Federal control the carriers be maintained and equipped on at least as high a standard as then existed. That was to make possible the return of the properties to their owners. In concluding, President Wilson again impressed upon Congress the necessity of deciding upon compensation that would be "equitable and just" both to railway bond and stockholders and to the public.

It was March 21 before the bill was ready for President Wilson's signature. Government officials immediately began the work of drawing up the contract provided for under the law. When completed, the contract was submitted to the Railway Executive Advisory Committee, representing owners of railroad bonds and stocks. That Committee is made up of a score of well-known railway executives, such as Samuel Rea, Howard Elliott, and L. F. Loree.

To make a blanket contract which would cover railroads operating under very different financial, physical, and traffic conditions was an extremely difficult task. But apparently, after months of negotiations with the Railroad Administrator, that task was performed by the Railway Executive Advisory Committee, for, after the meeting of a few days ago, Mr. Thomas De Witt Cuyler, chairman of the Committee, issued a statement, which said: "The Committee feels that the proposed contract is in the main acceptable."

It was the National Association of Owners of Railroad Securities, which was heard of for the first time only recently in connection with the pending Government contract, that raised the three objectione contained in the statements widely published after the meeting of a few days ago. Inasmuch as owners of railroad securities were being ably represented by the Railway Executive Advisory Committee, it would seem that the real cause of the conflicting statements just issued was "too many cooks."

As to the contract itself, the Government's annual guarantee of net income was based on the earnings of the railroads for the three years ending June 30, 1917, of which two represented new high records. Then further to protect itself, as well as the railway bond and stockholders, against higher operating expenses, the Railroad Administration has authorized increases in freight rates ranging from 25 to 40 per cent. and increases in passenger fares of from 50 to 300 per cent. more.

Since this country went to war, the steel, copper, coal, building, brewing, and many other trades either have had their selling prices reduced or their output restricted by the Government. Doubtless the holders of bonds and stocks of companies engaged in such trades would welcome an opportunity to sign a Government contract such as has been provided for the railroads. In some instances, such as the loss of westbound business by Erie, the railroads are going to suffer. But on the whole their position is safe compared to that of many other lines of business. That the need of stabilizing the market for railway securities was one of the pressing requirements of the time was pointed out by President Wilson when the Government took over the carriers.

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BOOKS OF THE WEEK

ESSAYS AND CRITICISM

Bruce, H. L. Voltaire on the English Stage. University of California Press. $1.50.
Chislett, W. The Classical Influence in English Literature in the Nineteenth Century and Other Essays. Boston: Stratford. $1.50 net.
Douglas, A. D. From Their Galleries. Boston: Four Seas Co. $1.25 net.
Gissing, G. The Private Papers of Henry Ryecroft. The Modern Library. Boni & Liveright. 60 cents net.
Hamilton, A. Sources of the Religious Element in Flaubert's Salammbô. Johns Hopkins Press. $1.25.
Henderson, A. European Dramatists. New and Enlarged Edition. Cincinnati: Stewart & Kidd. $2 net.
Holbrook, R. T. Etude sur Pathelin. Johns Hopkins Press. $1.25.
Ledoux, L. V. The Poetry of George Edward Woodberry. Dodd, Mead. $1.
Libro de Apolonio. Part I. Text and Introduction. Edited by C. C. Marden. Johns Hopkins Press. $1.50.
Marriott, J. A. R. English History in Shakespeare. Dutton. $4 net.
Mitchell, G. W. Anthropology Up-to-Date. Boston: Stratford. 75 cents.
Pound, E. Pavannes and Divisions. Knopf. $2.50 net.
Wood, M. W. The Spirit of Protest in Old French Literature. Columbia University Press.

POETRY AND DRAMA

Blackwood, A., and Pearn, V. Karma. Dutton. $1.60 net.
The Poetical Works of Gray and Collins. Edited by A. L. Poole and C. Stone. Oxford University Press. $1.

THE ARTS

Dennison, W. A Gold Treasure of the Late Roman Period. Part II of Studies in East Christian and Roman Art. University of Michigan Studies, Humanistic Series, Volume XII. Macmillan. $2.50 net.
Symons, A. The Art of Aubrey Beardsley. The Modern Library. Boni & Liveright. 60 cents net.

FICTION

Alarcón, P. A. de. The Three-Cornered Hat. Knopf. $1.25 net.
Bierce, A. In the Midst of Life. New edition. Boni & Liveright. $1.50 net.
Hagedorn, H. Barbara Picks a Husband. Macmillan. $1.50.
Haggard, H. R. Love Eternal. Longmans, Green. $1.50 net.
Hildreth, J. H. The Queen's Heart. Boston: Marshall Jones. $1.50 net.
Jacobsen, J. P. Marie Grubbe. New edition. Translated by H. A. Larsen. Boni & Liveright. $1.50 net.
Lewis, W. Tarr. Knopf. $1.75 net.
Locke, W. J. The Rough Road. Lane. $1.50 net.
Schnitzler, A. Bertha Garlan. The Modern Library. Boni & Liveright. 60 cents net.
Williams, S. The Eastern Window. Boston: Marshall Jones. $1.

HISTORY AND BIOGRAPHY

Dillon, E. J. The Eclipse of Russia. Doran. $4 net.
Henderson, A. George Bernard Shaw. New Edition. Boni & Liveright. $1.50 net.
Taylor H. Cicero. Second Edition. Chicago: A. C. McClurg.
Transactions of the Royal Historical Society. Third Series, Volume XI. London: Offices of the Society.

NATURAL SCIENCE

Alcohol: Its Action on the Human Organism. Longmans, Green. 60 cents net.

SOCIAL SCIENCE

Blatchford, R. Not Guilty: A Defence of the Bottom Dog. Boni & Liveright.
Brawley, B. Your Negro Neighbor. Macmillan. 60 cents.
Bubnoff, J. V. The Coöperative Movement in Russia. Manchester: Coöperative Printing Society, Limited.
Hauser, H. Germany's Commercial Grip on the World. Scribner. $1.50 net.
Marot, H. Creative Impulse in Industry. Dutton. $1.50 net.
Miller, G. R. Social Insurance in the United States. Chicago: A. C. McClurg. 60 cents.
Orr, C. W. J. Cyprus under British Rule. London: Robert Scott.
Woods, A. Crime Prevention. Princeton University Press. $1 net.
Stelzle, C. Why Prohibition! Doran. $1.50 net.

PHILOSOPHY AND RELIGION

Hocking, W. E. Human Nature and Its Remaking. Yale University Press. $3 net.
Murray, J. L. The Call of a World Task in War-Time. New York: Student Volunteer Movement. 60 cents.
Sanders, H. A. The Washington Manuscript of the Epistles of Paul. Part II of the New Testament Manuscripts in the Freer Collection. Macmillan. $1.25 net.

EDUCATION

Bates, H. English Literature. Longmans, Green. $1.50.
Stephens, A. M. A List of American Doctoral Dissertations Printed in 1916. Washington: Government Printing Office.
Toohey, J. J. An Elementary Handbook of Logic. New York: Schwartz, Kirwin & Fauss. $1.25.
Wrightson, H. A. Games for Children's Development. New York: Prospect Press. $1.50.

THE WAR

Alberti, M., and Others. Italy's Great War and Her National Aspirations. Houghton Mifflin.
Angell, N. The Political Conditions of Allied Success. Putnam. $1.50 net.
Bellows, H. A. Manual of Local Defence. Macmillan. $1.
Bigelow, P. Genseric. Putnam. $1.50 net.
Cameron, J. S. Ten Months in a German Raider. Doran. $1.25 net.
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Dawson, C. Out to Win. Lane. $1.25 net.
Farrow, E. S. A Dictionary of Military Terms. Crowell. $2.50 net.
Orcutt, P. D. The White Road of Mystery. Lane. $1.25 net.
Prentice, S. The Cloud. Dutton.
Richthofen, M. von. The Red Battle-Flyer. McBride. $1.25 net.
"The Good Soldier." A Selection of Soldiers' Letters, 1914-1918. Macmillan. $1.25.

MISCELLANEOUS

Wilbur, W. H. The Koehler Method of Physical Drill. Lippincott. $1 net.

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Summary of the News

THE German offensive on the western front was resumed on July 15, after a pause of more than four weeks. Advancing on a front of about sixty miles, from north of Chalons in the Champagne westward beyond Château Thierry, the Germans crossed the Marne at several points between Fossoy and Dormans. They also made a crossing west of Fossoy, where the sector was held by American forces, who drove the enemy back in a strong counter-attack and captured nearly 1,000 prisoners. As a result of the first day's fighting, the enemy have gained about three miles on a front of twenty-two miles between Rheims and Dormans on the Marne, while they have been held in their former position from Château Thierry to Fossoy, and from Rheims to Massiges. The prospects are most encouraging for the Allies at this writing.

ON the western front the Allies up to July 14 had succeeded in delivering numerous blows against the enemy and harassing him by minor operations. Southwest of Soissons, on the edge of the forest of Villers-Cotterets, Gen. Pétain's men on July 8, on a two-mile front, advanced three-fourths of a mile, taking 347 prisoners, while Australian troops advanced their line astride the Somme to a depth of 600 yards on a front of 3,000 yards. On July 9 the French, between Montdidier and the Oise, advanced a mile on a front of two and one-half miles, capturing 530 prisoners. On July 11 the French captured Courcy, southwest of Soissons, and the British improved their position east of Villers-Bretonneux. On July 12 the French captured Castel and the dominating area commanding the Avre Valley; and on July 13, in the Longpont-Corcy area, southwest of Soissons, they pushed their line across the Savières River. In the north German artillery has been active northwest of Albert, west of Kemmel Hill, and south and southeast of Ypres.

THE most notable military achievement of the past week has been the advance in the Balkans, where the new Allied offensive in Albania has been successful in advancing beyond Berat. This new line of attack has been carried forward mainly by the Italians, aided by the French, and assisted by British monitors on the Adriatic coast. Undoubtedly this front, held by the Austrians, had been greatly weakened by withdrawing troops to aid in the recent unfortunate offensive of the Austrians on the Piave, and the Italians took immediate advantage of the situation. Fieri, eighteen miles north of Avlona, the Italian base, was captured on July 9, when 1,300 prisoners were taken; on July 12 Berat, the Austrian base, was occupied, and large quantities of war material were seized. The line on which the fighting has chiefly taken place covers about sixty miles, from the River Devoli to the Adriatic. The objective of the Allies is assumed to be the old Roman road, the Via Egnatia, reaching to Monastir and considered a key to southern Serbia. According to latest reports, the Allied forces in Albania and Macedonia have succeeded in perfecting a single front from the Adriatic to Salonica.

COUNT VON HERTLING, the German Chancellor, on July 11 in the Reichstag, in discussing the foreign policy of the Ger-

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nan Government and the economic problems of the Empire, said that Germany had no intention of retaining Belgium, and merely meant to use it in future peace negotiations as a pawn. He demanded for Germany inviolability of her territory, freedom for her expansion in the economic domain, and security in regard to the future, and declared that she stood by her peace views outlined in the Imperial response to Pope Benedict's attempt to end hostilities.

EMPEROR WILLIAM'S acceptance of Dr. Richard von Kühlmann's resignation as German Foreign Secretary, and the appointment of Admiral von Hintze to this office, is assumed to be a victory for the Pan-Germans, who were offended by Dr. von Kühlmann's statement on June 24, in the Reichstag, that the war could not be ended by a military decision alone, without recourse to diplomatic negotiations.

RUSSIAN news indicates that in spite of rumors of counter-revolutions, no immediate change in the Government is considered probable. The counter-revolution of the Socialist-Revolutionist party in Moscow has broken down, and the Bolsheviki remain in power. The Ukrainians have appealed to the Germans to bring about order in their country. The Czecho-Slovak forces in Siberia, organized to fight with the Allies on the western front, have, through their spokesman, Col. Hurban, declared themselves unwilling to fight the Bolshevist Government in Russia itself. Bolshevist forces in the Volga region have won a great success against the Czecho-Slovaks there; and an official statement from Moscow also claims that the Czecho-Slovaks in Siberia are retreating before a counter-offensive of the Bolsheviki. Gen. Muravieff, accused of seeking to direct an offensive against the Soviet Government, is reported to have committed suicide. Yet, according to a Reuter dispatch of July 10, the Czecho-Slovaks have control of the Trans-Siberian Railway from the junction in the Ural Mountains to a point 1,300 miles east, and are holding Vladivostok against the Soviet Government.

EUROPEAN RUSSIA, too, continues in an unsettled political state. On the Murman coast in the north complications have arisen between the German-Finnish forces, the native population, and the Allies. The German-Finnish forces have been building a strategic railway toward Kem on the White Sea. According to Entente reports, the population of the Murman coast region thereupon appealed to the Allies at Kola for help, repudiating the Bolshevist Government at Moscow. British forces have landed on the Murman coast and have now occupied Kem, 200 miles south of Kola. This action is not in harmony with the policy hitherto supported by President Wilson, whose programme of sending a civilian commission, with only a small escort of troops, called for peaceful penetration and economic regeneration of Russia. Economic difficulties in Russia at present include railway strikes in various districts and food shortage, owing to which cholera is reported to have spread widely in Petrograd.

THE British Labor party, according to Mr. Arthur Henderson, its leader, has succeeded in getting its statement of war aims into the hands of the Socialists of enemy countries, and has thus far received five replies. According to Mr. Henderson, the Bulgarian and Hungarian Socialists have practically accepted the general points of the British memorandum. The Austrian Socialists endorsed the British Socialist conception of a Federal system for Austria-Hungary and a similar system for the Balkan States, and agreed that the Alsace-Lorraine, Italian, Polish, and colonial questions should be settled by the peoples concerned. The German minority Socialists submitted a statement on the lines of the inter-Allied memorandum, and the German majority Socialists declared their willingness to take part in an international conversation on the basis of the proposals made by the neutral Socialists. They agreed to complete restoration of Belgian independence, and were ready to discuss Alsace-Lorraine and Belgium. They also urged an international conference and declared themselves in favor of a league of nations to prevent aggression by one Power upon another.

MEXICO is to have the ban on food exportations from this country lifted, and certain foodstuffs, under certain restrictions and under the direction of the United States Federal Food Administration, may now be exported. In return the United States expects Mexico to export articles not needed by her. This action of the United States, announced on July 10, is "the concrete expression" of friendship referred to by President Wilson in June when addressing the Mexican editors. The exportation of 1,500,000 bushels of corn, agricultural machinery, and other manufactured articles has been arranged, and additional supplies are to be sent as soon as possible.

PRESIDENT WILSON on July 12 put his veto on the bill carrying the annual appropriation for the Department of Agriculture, because of the proviso fixing the minimum price of wheat at $2.40 a bushel for the incoming crop. The President based his objection on the fact that arbitrary price-fixing did not result as satisfactorily as the present method of regulation by conference with all concerned. The President held that the fixed minimum of $2.40 would add $2 per barrel to the price of flour, and that such an increase in the price of wheat in the United States would force an increase in the price of Canadian wheat; the Allied Governments would find their financial obligations enormously enlarged, and the cost of living here would be increased, with resulting economic difficulties.

GOVERNMENT control over telephone, telegraph, radio, and cable systems was passed by the Senate on July 13 by a vote of 46 to 16, on the joint resolution previously passed by the House on July 5 by a vote of 221 to 4. The minority votes were all Republican. All attempts to amend or to insure against censorship failed.

LOANS to the Allies by the United States now total $6,091,590,000 and are increasing at a rate of nearly $400,000,000 monthly. Great Britain has received $3,170,000,000; France, $1,765,000,000; Italy, $660,000,000; Russia, $325,000,000; Belgium, $131,800,000; Greece, $15,790,000; Cuba, $15,000,000; and Servia, $9,000,000. Of the credit extended to Russia only $187,000,000 was paid out before the fall of the Kerensky Government.

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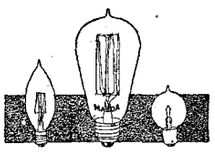

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